The Nation.

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The Week.

The history of a panic is the history of a confused conflict of many causes; and unless you know what sort of effect each cause is likely to produce, you cannot explain any part of what happens—it is like trying to explain the bursting of a boiler without knowing the theory of steam.

That sentence of Walter Bagehot's might well be set as a copybook model for many of our rough and ready expounders of the financal trouble—these men with their glib "Morse did it," "The currency system did it," "Roosevelt did it." We have to distinguish, of course, between the real and the political explanation. Politically, Mr. Roosevelt will be held responsible. By an inexorable political law, the President who "created" prosperity must also preserve it, or he becomes unworthy of idolatry. To trace the larger causes is work for the financial historian and the social philosopher. But we are too close to the upheaval to be certain of all the forces which wrought it. At the same time, we can perceive, for example, that what has been called the "cosmopolitan loan fund" of the world had not only become larger than ever before, but was more fluid than ever, and had been more exhaustively drawn upon. Under the pressure, we have seen it running here and there like drops of quicksilver. That financial trouble in New York should close the Stock Exchange of Rome, as the dispatches tell us, betrays in a striking way not only the international character of surplus capital, but the long and severe strain it has undergone. Part of the trouble runs back to the state of mind of the people generally. The habit of extravagance has become fixed during these seven fat years. Luxuries have been bought as never before—luxuries of the kind that perish with the using, that not only lock up capital, but destroy it. Unproductive expenditure has been large, in contrast with reproductive outlays. It has been true, too, that profits and savings have been, in a probably unprecedented way, put into speculative securities. This meant that hundreds of thousands of people had not their customary margin in cash savings, upon which they could readily put their hand in a crisis. Beneath this luxurious temper lies the belief that prosperity will go on without a break. We may keep spending freely and without a tremor. But the same credulity easily translates itself into panic. From believing that there is no end to our riches, people pass to the other extreme and believe that all riches are about to take wings. Easy-going and unwinking luxury becomes in a night panic-stricken hoarding. We have only hinted at causes which go deeper than any person, any law, any party. Folly and improvidence were in for a punishment. They are now getting it.

Much attention has been paid to the somewhat startling figures of last Saturday's weekly New York bank statement; especially to the $51,924,000 deficiency below the 25 per cent. ratio of reserve to deposits required by the National Bank law. A little examination will prove, however, that the showing is by no means so sensational or disquieting as might at first glance be supposed. It is true that this deficit of last Saturday is the largest in our banking history. The largest reported in the panic of 1893 was $16,545,000, on August 12, and, although the banks ceased publishing their weekly statements in the panic of 1873, it is wholly improbable that there was any such deficit then. But the test of present conditions is not obtained by comparison of actual deficit figures, but by comparison of the ratio still maintained between reserve and deposits. The $16,545,000 deficit of August, 1893, left actual cash in hand amounting to 20⅝ per cent. of deposits; last Saturday's $51,924,000 deficit left a reserve ratio of 20¼. In other words, the New York banks are substantially no worse off than they were fourteen years ago. The reason why the present deficiency is so much larger than that of 1893 is that all other items in the bank statement are to-day much larger. Last Saturday, the New York banks held $219,794,000 in actual cash; when the deficit of 1893 was greatest, these same cash holdings were only $76,505,000. But, naturally, in the legitimate expansion of business between 1893 and 1907, loans and deposits had increased in a similar ratio. Where deposits, in that earlier panic, amounted to $372,200,000, last Saturday they footed up to $1,086,878,000. The conclusion to be drawn is that the New York banks, being nearly three times as strong in actual resources as in 1893, can report a deficiency in reserves three times as great and still retain fully as sound a position as in that year. Within four weeks of the heaviest deficit of 1893, a surplus over the 25 per cent. reserve had been restored, and the same thing is likely this year. As for the mere fact that reserves were so far invaded as to reduce their ratio to deposits from 25 per cent. to 20¼, every one knows that such use of the stipulated reserve, in a panic time, is precisely the reason why that reserve was prescribed by the banking law. The sound principle of banking, recognized ever since the celebrated "Bullion Report" to Parliament in 1810, has been that, in times of panic, banks should discount freely and fearlessly for all solvent customers, but at high rates, and should use their reserve fund for that purpose.

Vast programmes of legislation are being marked out for the coming Congress. It is to repeal the Sherman Anti-Trust law; it is to reform the currency; it is to vote $1,000,000,000 in appropriations; it is to get ten thousand recommendations from the President, and act upon all of them *instanter*. People who blithely make such predictions leave too many things out of their reckoning. They forget that politics will swallow up everything else at Washington this winter. The shadow of the Presidential election will rest upon the Capitol from the first day of the session. Everything that is proposed, debated, or enacted will be thought of primarily in relation to the political fortunes of some man or party. Under such circumstances, the actual work done—if we do not count intriguing as work—is pretty certain to be small. Congress is proverbial for finding its strength in sitting still. And if business depression hangs over the country into next year, the House, at least, under that master of how not to do it, Speaker Cannon, will be likely to sit stiller than ever.

When the Service Pension act was passed, many people who had opposed it tried to console themselves by the thought that, even if the pension-grabbers had triumphed, they would at least not be heard from again. This theory has already been proved baseless. Your pension-hunter's appetite can never be satiated. Hardly had the bill pensioning every one of ninety days' service become a law when there was a movement to obtain State pensions in addition to the Federal. Now, a more serious undertaking is announced. As soon as Congress reassembles, Senator Burrows and Representative Dawes are to introduce a bill for a retired list for all volunteer officers who served at least one year in the field prior to Lee's surrender. According to their ages, the beneficiaries are to receive one-half or three-quarters of the pay of regular officers of the ranks they held when mustered out—but nobody is to receive more than $2,000 a year. There is to be no back pay, and every pension now held by an officer is to be surrendered. It is estimated that 9,000 officers still survive who would benefit by this law; of these only two are major-generals and twenty-eight brigadier-generals, out of 680 of both grades. Precedent for the proposal

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is a law approved May 15, 1828, giving to each of the surviving officers of the Continental Line the amount of his pay in the line up to the full pay of a captain. There were 12,500 who profited by this law, and they were at that time nearly all of the age of seventy or above.

We fear that when Secretary Taft returns he will have to provide for his carriage some other motive power than the arms and legs of his enthusiastic fellow-countrymen. As if the defeat of Burton in Cleveland were not enough, Samuel Gompers now says unkind things about the Secretary. Has the Republican Administration, then, created the highest wages on the face of the globe for nothing? Has the President shaken the grimy hands of scores of locomotive engineers, only to have an official spokesman of organized labor decline to give complete and unqualified support to the heir-apparent? The sentiments of Mr. Gompers, like those of Dick Deadeye, "disgrace our common natur'." Mr. Taft and his friends may draw some satisfaction from the fact that the candidates on Mr. Gompers's blacklist last year did conspicuously well in the elections. But, unfortunately, there are others who treat the plans for the Presidential succession with courtesy equally scant. Mr. Taft is popular now, and he always has been popular in this country; but it is becoming increasingly plain that his standing as a Presidential candidate would be actually better to-day without Administration support.

For the year ending June 30, a bulletin of the Interstate Commerce Commission shows that our railroads took more than their customary toll of deaths and injuries. The killed number 5,000, an increase of 775 over 1906, and the injured 76,286, an increase of 9,577. This is an old story, and it constitutes a national disgrace. That a certain proportion of accidents is unavoidable on the best-regulated railroads, must be admitted. The English roads have had at least three terrible disasters within a twelvemonth. But defective equipment, negligence, and recklessness are not accidental, and to them must be attributed a painfully large share of our annual railway slaughter. The bulletin speaks of the extraordinary number of derailments during the twelvemonth. Many of these were due to broken rails. That fact should certainly stiffen the railroad officials in their demand that the steel manufacturers make a better quality of rail.

The result in actual votes of the Hearst-Parsons deal in New York County deserves special study, because the whole fusion movement was frankly put upon a numerical basis. Herbert Parsons made no other defence, or pretence, from the first. It was all a question of figures and percentages. To every Republican who protested on the score of principle or consistency, Mr. Parsons had but one answer. He took out his pad and jotted down the election returns of 1905. In that year, the vote for Ivins in New York County was 64,289, for Hearst 123,292, for McClellan 140,264. Hence it was as plain as addition that the way to beat Tammany was to fuse the Republican vote with the Hearst vote. In actual result, however, Mr. Parsons's little sum figures out as follows:

64,289+123,292=117,000.

The reverse of this mathematical puzzle is displayed in Brooklyn. In Kings County, the Republican vote in 1905 was 61,192; that for Hearst, 84,835, and for McClellan 68,728. In Brooklyn, however, there was no fusion with Hearst. His tremendous vote was deliberately ignored, but with the result, in the returns for County Clerk, that the problem in subtraction contrasts in this way with Mr. Parsons's in addition:

61,192—84,835=79,969.

Such figures may lie, but they point an unmistakable political moral. Any politician who sits down with the election returns and proceeds to make his combinations purely on the basis of votes cast—ignoring the past, hazarding the future, leaving out convictions, making a jest of conscience—is certain to be confronted with such unpleasant results as stare Mr. Parsons in the face. He will always find an unknown quantity vitiating his nicely prepared equation. That unknown quantity is the moral element. People whose votes are to be "delivered" have a way of obstinately refusing to be counted as so many cattle. They will insist upon exercising their own judgment; and indignation at political chicanery and cynicism will always powerfully influence them. This is the consideration which never entered into Mr. Parsons's reckoning. His crushing defeat has writ large a moral which the most hardened politicians must hereafter take to heart. You cannot denounce a man one year as a dangerous incendiary, the deadly enemy of law and order, and then the next year embrace him as a brother, without having the people repudiate you and all your works.

A mixture of good and bad—as in most human things—appears in the reports on the condition of the civil service, read last week at the annual meeting of the Civil-Service Reform League in Buffalo. President Roosevelt and Gov. Hughes came in for praise; Mayor McClellan and the Federal officials of Buffalo for severe condemnation. Gov. Hughes's address was the valuable testimony of an executive who, in actual practice, and with a large amount of patronage, has found the best interests of the State conserved by adhering to the principles of the reformed service. Particularly effective was the Governor's quiet disposal of the time-worn flings at civil-service examinations. He would attach no undue importance to examination papers, but, "as compared with the system of making public office a partisan encampment, the system of competitive examination is so far in advance that there is no debate among reasonable men upon the question."

The Supreme Court of the District of Columbia heard arguments last week in an important boycott case. The Buck's Stove and Range Company is applying for a temporary injunction to restrain Samuel Gompers and others and the American Federation of Labor from boycotting it and its products. The company has already brought suit against Gompers and his associates on the ground that their interference with its business has constituted restraint of trade within the meaning of the Sherman Anti-Trust law. The attack upon the company arose out of the allegation that members of the Brotherhood of Foundry Employees had been compelled to return to a ten-hour day after having once worked for nine hours. The affidavits in support of the company's application make a book of 312 pages and show how far-reaching is the terrorism exercised by the Federation of Labor. The company was notified by agents the country over that they could not sell its products without incurring the enmity of local unions, and risking their entire business. A boycott of a firm of manufacturers has been something heretofore thought of as merely a local affair, applying, say, to Bridgeport only. But this amazing exhibit shows that the Federation followed up the products of the Buck's Company into State after State, and through its local branches did its best to destroy utterly the business of the company. Other, and quite different, ways in which the boycott is being used by the Gompers inner ring of eleven men, who control their two million followers from Washington, have recently been brought out by *American Industries*, the organ of the National Association of Manufacturers. It publishes in facsimile a letter from the officers of the Memphis branch of the International Union of Steam Engineers, "consisting of more than one hundred of the leading and most intelligent engineers of the city of Memphis," to the effect that its members will patronize only those dealers in engineering supplies who advertise in the *International Steam Engineer*, an "official paper" printed in Boston. Obviously, if the same tactics are employed in

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other cities, the *International Steam Engineer* will shortly have the finest advertising display in the country, and its manager can retire in luxury, since he can ask any rate he chooses.

If anything were still necessary to convince fair-minded men of the emptiness of the Japanese war scare, so persistently fostered by the Jingo press, Foreign Minister Hayashi's declaration of policy through the medium of the Associated Press should be sufficient. No more manly or frank enunciation of a great Power's attitude has been reported for many a year, nor can we readily think of a statesman who has ventured so far in the expression of conciliatory sentiments without actually abandoning the conciliatory for the merely supine. It is, of course, open to those who gaze eagle-eyed on the Pacific and discern thereon Japanese armadas bearing hosts of invasion, to believe that all this elaborate explanation of the Japanese Foreign Minister is guile and deception. As a matter of fact, we have gone far enough in our recoil from the Japanomania of two years ago. No admirable quality that the mind of man could devise was wanting to the gallant little nation then; no sinister motive or capacity that the mind of editor can devise is wanting to the Mikado's people at present. They are dishonest, immoral, cruel, ambitious, and superhuman only in their ability to work mischief. The one quality of intense though shrewd patriotism, we do not deny them. Yet if people would only stop to think on present conditions in Japan and in international politics, how clearly it would appear that a shrewd and limitless patriotism itself counsels Japan to peace for years to come.

Men of impulsive nature like the German Emperor often do the wrong thing; but sometimes, too, they hit upon the right action at the critical moment. The Kaiser's visit to Edward VII., which is said to have been suddenly decided upon, is very timely. It cannot but prove a contribution to the cause of European peace, and it loses nothing of its significance in coming so dramatically close upon the dissolution of the Hague Conference, with its disappointed hopes. The meeting of the German and British monarchs completes the circle of *rapprochements* and *ententes* which has been drawn about the European Powers in the course of the last three years. First, Great Britain and France entered into the now celebrated "understanding" which removed the colonial possessions of both Powers outside the scope of possible future contention. Spain, through her close relations with France in the matter of Mediterranean policy, came under the influence of the dual agreement. Since England has always been the friend of Italy in the Mediterranean, there followed, as a result of the Anglo-French *entente*, a decided relaxation in the chronically jealous relations between France and Italy. The very integrity of the Triple Alliance seemed threatened when Italy joined with France against Germany in the Algeciras Conference of last year. France, a mediator in turn, has no doubt hastened the recently concluded agreement between Great Britain and Russia. And now it is not improbable that Russian influence has helped to bring about the interview between Edward VII. and William II. It is true that where everybody is everybody else's friend, the chances for quarrelling are not removed. Nevertheless, the peace of Europe must profit when Germany abandons her attitude of suspicion.

No one expected any other outcome of the suit brought by Chancellor von Bülow than the punishment of the journalist who libelled him in such a criminal way. Von Bülow is by no means a generally popular man, but he has the respect of all intelligent political observers. Indeed, even the cartoonists of the Opposition give him a kindly appearance, at the moment of ridiculing his ideas and satirizing his utterances. That Von Bülow's position has been shaken somewhat by the revelations in regard to the court camarilla is undeniable. The way in which the Foreign Office is now seen to have handled the Moroccan affair is also bound to injure him; for the former Under-Secretary of State confessed profound ignorance of some of the actions brought to light by the Harden revelations. Meanwhile, the Chancellor's efforts to carry on his "block-policy" of uniting Conservatives and Liberals are meeting with greater and greater opposition. The Radical Liberals are doing their best to break it up, and to enter into a working agreement with the Socialists. The Centre, too, is no less antagonistic than it was a year ago. Hence, the coming session is likely to witness some vigorous onslaughts upon the Chancellor, whose long summer absence from Berlin has increased the anxiety of the public about his health.

An agitation in favor of restoring the death penalty, which has been virtually abolished in France by the commutation of death sentences to life imprisonment and by the suppression of the annual appropriation for the maintenance of the guillotine in the Department of the Seine, is reported to be rapidly growing. Crimes of violence in the large towns have been increasing to what the greater part of the French press describes as an alarming extent; the *apache*, or thug, has become a prominent character in contemporary journalistic art; and the pleasant life that awaits the convicted murderer in the perpetual care of a kind-hearted government has been contrasted by the Opposition press with the mode of life of the average laborer or peasant. The government, indeed, is about to introduce into the Chamber a bill for the abolition of capital punishment. That it does not overlook the seriousness of the present situation, however, is shown by the initiation of measures looking towards the reorganization of the police system all over the country. Such twofold action is wise, for it proceeds on the principle that if punishment is really a deterrent of crime, its efficacy depends, not on the degree of severity, but on the certainty of its application. The history of the movement for the abolition of capital punishment is often that of a spasmodic abandonment of the death penalty, with its equally spasmodic reëstablishment under the influence of temporary panic. That the French government is bent upon putting the issue to a fair trial is evident from the recent action of President Fallières in commuting the death sentence of the perpetrator of a peculiarly atrocious crime, in the face of public indignation.

France has not yet got over her alarm at the discovery of an international syndicate of church-looters, when she is confronted by the much more serious danger of a "syndicate of traitors," or an "association of international spies," five of whose leaders were arrested this week at Toulon. From a rapid examination of documents taken in the raid, the police are inclined to believe that "the gang has for a long time been carrying on an extensive traffic in military and naval secrets." Popular imagination likes to conceive the Mafia and the Black Hand as world-wide societies with a highly perfected organization, which allows some mysterious grand chief to press a button and send murder and sudden death thrilling along every cable under the seven seas. At the present moment, the editor of a New York Yiddish newspaper is reported to be awaiting calmly the fulfilment of the sentence of death passed on him by the Russian Black Hundred. But the idea of an international syndicate of traitors is incomparably fascinating. Nations will no longer be forced to maintain expensive secret service systems, or to cling to antiquated small-producer methods by bribing a captain or a lieutenant here and there. An application, in a printed envelope, addressed "Iscariot, P. O. Box 23, Zurich," will bring Germany all the information she desires about the fortifications on the northeastern French frontier, or acquaint the American government with the exact disposition of the Japanese army, now secretly encamped in Hawaii.

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RETURNING REASON.

The results of the election, falling together with events in the financial world, seem to us to promise a period of more rational politics. The explosive and clamorous politicians have been pretty thoroughly found out and discredited. Hearst is under a large-sized extinguisher. Bryan cannot get any possible cheer out of the election returns: his own State went against him again, and his lieutenants in Massachusetts made a magnificent wreck of a great party opportunity. The President, too, is sobered. His political astuteness, if nothing else, may now be counted upon to lead him to come out as the most cautious and healing of statesmen. He may be depended upon to use the great powers of his office to help steady the country's affairs. The bare official announcement that the President is to make no more public utterances for a month, is, as Carlyle would say, significant of much.

If we are truly to have a reaction from our sensationalized politics of the past few years, the change will be great and refreshing. Few of us have stopped to reflect how the nerves of the nation have been successively racked. By turbulent methods, by loud outcry and the shouting of the captains, we have somehow come to believe that politics means a continual *tour de force*. Somebody must be always in the limelight, gesticulating and vociferating. Every campaign must be a whirlwind. The people must more and more be driven frantic; and the gravest political questions must be decided by the larger volume of applause. We will not undertake to apportion the responsibility for this state of things. The sensational press cannot escape its share; but the chief blame lies with those politicians who have sought to keep the masses perpetually agitated, who have thrust one question after another to the front, and insisted that it be settled at once, and that by dint of lung-power rather than the prevailing of the better reason.

This style of political progress, by plunging and squealing like a six-mule team, has been much practised for the past decade; great individual successes, or notorieties, have been achieved by means of it; but there are many signs to-day that the people are tired of it, and that we are in for a quieter era. The country has seen the results of ripping things to pieces, and keeping everything in a whirl, and is now looking about for a party and a political leader to do a little of the humdrum work of restoration and construction. There can be little doubt that it is this new attitude of mind which has caused so many people in so many different parts of the country to turn to Gov. Hughes. They have heard his confession of political faith, as made in his address at Columbia University—namely, that it should be the great aim to apply reason to public affairs. They have also seen him proving his faith by his works. And the extraordinary and unforced feeling, manifested so widely, that a man of his type ought to be chosen for the Presidency, is of itself a striking indication that we are passing out of an excitable time of upheaval, into a calmer and saner period.

Of course, when we speak of applying reason to politics, the larger reason is intended. The truly rational politician must take into his reckoning all the facts of political human nature; must know what things can be done, and what cannot be; must be responsive to the desire for improvement, his effort being to direct it wisely. Reason is opposed to passion, or vindictiveness, not to progress. Only, the progress must be along tried paths and by sound methods. Out of vague unrest or disturbance, the rational statesman must be able to find a way by deliberate use of sensible remedies for public dissatisfaction. The two capital examples that Gov. Hughes has given are in the field of insurance and supervision of corporations. After the excitement and the scandals of the insurance investigation, a new code of well-considered laws emerged. That Mr. Hughes should have been able to digest the results of the inquiry in his report to the Legislature, and then not only draft but carry the appropriate legislation, has been described by a competent authority as a great intellectual feat. But it was more than that: it was patient and constructive statesmanship. And of the same kind in planning (we cannot yet pronounce fully upon the results) was the measure establishing the Public Service Commissions. In either case, what we had was, after the earthquake of investigation, the still small voice of reason: all the facts firmly grasped and dispassionately studied, the necessary changes in the law worked out and put into operation.

That is the ideal of rational politics which Gov. Hughes has so well exemplified. Over-zealous friends of Roosevelt speak of the Governor as a "reactionary"—or, at least, say that those who are talking of him for the Presidency are all "reactionaries." No mistake could be greater. Steady and sane progress cannot be called reaction except in contrast with the mad and blind rushing ahead which ends in the ditch. There is nothing of the rest-and-be-thankful attitude in Gov. Hughes. He would vie with the next man in maintaining that there are great problems in connection with corporation control which the country is bound to attack. The difference is that he would do it without haste or passion, and by bringing to bear the best collective judgment of the nation.

If the people are indeed returning to reason, it is not strange that they are casting about for a reasonable man. Hence the force in the contention that the elections of last week, with their rebuke to agitators and hot-heads, have greatly increased Gov. Hughes's chances of being nominated for the Presidency.

THE TARIFF ON PAPER.

That the President would sympathize with the American Newspaper Publishers' Association in its appeal for the abolition of the tariff on press paper, wood-pulp, and all the wood that goes into the manufacture of paper, was to be expected. Perhaps something of Theodore Roosevelt the free-trader of bygone days stirred anew in the Presidential breast. Besides, he would be a rare politician who in these days should be adamant to the wails of a united and suffering press. And so the President has promised not only to recommend in his annual message to Congress the abolition of the oppressive tariffs, but also to urge the Department of Justice to ascertain if the paper manufacturers are violating the anti-Trust laws.

Whether the President was able to control his risibles at the spectacle of representatives of the most determined "stand-pat" newspapers demanding free trade in paper, while insisting that not another hair on the hoary tariff head should be touched, is not reported. But his sense of humor makes it impossible that he should have failed to appreciate the joke. He is, of course, fully aware that in the new Congress his recommendation will fall on deaf ears. His political legatee, Secretary Taft, has given reasons why there should be no tariff changes until after the Presidential election. These every "standpatter" who wishes to keep the tariff on paper can cite as having been directly inspired from the White House. But it is not only the approach of the election which will block the way to this desirable legislation; the representatives of the publishers will speedily learn that to make a single change in the tariff now may endanger the entire structure. Senator Burrows, for instance, lamented with all solemnity the other day the inability of his party to alter certain schedules obviously too high until it could go over the whole tariff. Two years hence, however, when the general overhauling will be in order, dozens of statesmen will rise to urge that tariff readjustment, if any, be made by changing only one schedule at a time. By such tactics, revision may be postponed till the Greek kalends.

If the Republican party really wanted to end a flagrant wrong, this would be its opportunity. Gladstone attacked the same problem in England in 1860, in the face of great opposition. Conservatives the country over rose in arms at the suggestion of free paper. It would flood the country with cheap and pernicious newspapers; it meant the establishment

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of a "daily propaganda of socialism, communism, red republicanism, blasphemy, bad spelling, and general immorality." The House of Lords voted down the bill abolishing the tax—but to its cost. Within a year, Mr. Gladstone had retaliated in a way which has ever since tied the hands of the Lords in matters of finance and taxation. He adopted the simple expedient of sending to the Lords in one bill all measures affecting supply and revenue; "which," as Mr. Gladstone said, "we knew the Lords would not dare to throw out." The Republican party could find the way quickly enough to repeal our own "tax on intelligence," as Mr. Gladstone termed it, did its masters only permit. But those protected interests which cowed the valiant President Roosevelt into suppressing his tariff reform message are the persons whose word is law—not their puppets in Congress.

So far as the Paper Trust is concerned, the Department of Justice, if it conducts its investigation with care, will, we believe, find much of interest besides recent disregard of a Federal Court's orders. The Trust asserts that it owns only two Canadian mills, but a reputable Boston publisher who tried lately to obtain his supply from Canada suddenly found that, after he had made all arrangements, the mill was unable to do the work. Subsequently, an agent of the Trust appeared in his office and recounted to him every step in his negotiations with the Canadian mill, and then laughed at his failure to break away from the Trust.

On the other hand, the International Paper Company insists that the raising of prices is due to the growing scarcity of material. Its net earnings have steadily decreased from $2,138,117.31 in 1905 to $1,985,540.96 in 1906 and $1,623.616.48 in 1907. Furthermore, it has been forced to sell six million dollars' worth of bonds during the last four years to provide for new timber lands, pay for alterations, renewals, etc. The stockholders, therefore, cannot be said to profit by the increased price of the product.

But, in spite of this plea of poverty, the fact seems to be that the Trust is dumping paper abroad at a lower figure than it obtains here. After the Trust was organized, our exports of paper were doubled within three years. The value of the exports in 1906 was $9,536,065, and the paper was sold in England at less than two cents per pound, as compared with something less than three cents in this country. If the scarcity of wood-pulp is the real reason for the rise in price, the Trust ought to be the first to ask for a lowering of the duty, for there is abundant wood for pulp in Nova Scotia and Newfoundland. And, quite aside from the question of paper, the senseless deforestation of much of this country has made all lumber scarce and costly. Hence, if the Republican party were really as concerned for the pocket of the workingman as it pretends to be for the condition of his dinner pail, it would make the repeal of the tariff on lumber a matter second only in importance to a readjustment of our inflexible currency. From one point of view, the sufferings of the publishers may accomplish some good. President Hayes used to tell the story of how the tragic recapture of a slave in the street in which he lived had made of every man in it a foe of slavery. "Hereafter, Mr. Hayes," said one of his pro-slavery neighbors, "I shall be not only a black Republican, but a *damned Abolitionist*." We hope that, so far as the tariff is concerned, the present object-lesson will make all newspaper publishers damned abolitionists.

FRANCHISE BARGAINING.

It is an interesting fact that the realization of what a city is able to obtain by skilful bargaining with a public-service corporation has come about during the very years when the advocates of complete municipalization have been most eloquent over the peculiar advantages of their own plan. The results that have actually been secured by negotiation are on record for the guidance of the cities which sooner or later will have to approach the same questions. Though it is too early to attempt a final judgment, recent experience teaches that the average municipality is in a much better position for dealing with its public utilities than was formerly supposed.

No party to a bargain or a controversy could possibly have made a worse start in this respect than did the average city. Municipal ownership advocates are in the habit of speaking rather disrespectfully of the United States Supreme Court's decision in the Dartmouth College case, on which franchise properties are so largely based. "Reasonable legislation," says Frederick C. Howe in one of his books, "would have created a license, revocable at the will of the granting authority, but subject to compensation by the community for the actual investment made by the company. Such is the title enjoyed by other wealth." Be that as it may, "reasonable legislation" had extremely little to do with the early treatment of public-service companies. Some most enlightened franchise ordinances were passed at very early dates, to be sure. The first franchise ever granted in Chicago, for example, safeguarded the city's interests so well that no capitalist ever built a road under it. But, in general, where the desire of a community to get the benefit of the new and wonderful urban conveniences would not give the exploiters of these conveniences what they wanted, bribery would. This method of corruption did more than create powerful material monopolies; it created an attitude of mind on both sides unfavorable to the public interest. It was expressed in the attitude of a street-railroad official who once remarked that "the first man who accepted a limited franchise deserved to be shot."

Yet, as it has turned out, the possession of long-term or even perpetual franchises does not make a corporation invulnerable. So long as communities grow, neighborhoods change, and invention progresses, public-service corporations have to seek new licenses and privileges, and every application for extension or modification of the old conditions is a weapon in the city's hands. Perhaps a traction company wants to lay its tracks across a new bridge, or an electric company to build new conduits. A city often can make a better bargain by securing favorable changes in former grants than by exacting compensation in money. There have even been cases, we believe, in which companies that had secured perpetual, irrevocable franchises in horse-car and cable days, could have been made to capitulate before being allowed to use electric power.

Concrete instances of recent date show the great strategic importance, so to put it, of these supplementary or expiring grants. Chicago contended for years against traction companies to which the Illinois Legislature had granted in 1865 ninety-nine-year extensions of all franchises. The city never recognized the validity of the act, but even when the companies were insisting most stoutly on their rights, no one supposed for a moment that, because of them, a settlement of the burning question was to be deferred till 1964. The city made the relinquishment of these ninety-nine-year rights a condition in each of the many solutions proposed from the mayoralty of the first Carter Harrison to that of Dunne. Though in the end these always dubious rights were disposed of by a Supreme Court decision, there is no practical doubt that the companies would have had to waive them soon in any event, if the city continued firm. Cleveland, at the present time, illustrates the same condition. There the old company, with absolutely unassailable 5-cent-fare franchises on three-quarters of its lines, with from ten to twenty years still to run, was ready to surrender all of them if it could get a new twenty-year franchise that would keep its system complete even at a 3½-cent fare. Detroit and some other Western cities, we believe, have secured almost as favorable arrangements for themselves by making their companies bid for privileges which, if not absolutely indispensable, were at least extremely important to the operation of their systems.

Allusion has been made above to the unfortunate atmosphere that used to surround all franchise discussions. The

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corporations' own sublime belief in their right to extraordinary and continued privileges communicated itself to some extent throughout our society. It helped to make ordinary citizens indifferent, and officials complaisant and venal. Even the most casual observer must have noticed the change in the attitude of both the corporations and the public. The Chicago telephone franchise, for example, is regarded as more favorable to subscribers than any other in the country. It provides for an amount of public regulation that would have been looked upon as remarkable a few years ago. Yet even that franchise is under attack now on the ground that it was practically drawn by the company itself, and that the city ought to have done better still. The same point was made in Cleveland. Mr. Burton was attacked as the traction company's candidate, though his programme would have brought the city better terms than any other has to-day. Mayor Johnson expects to get still better conditions within a month. Nor are Cleveland, Detroit, and Chicago in possession of any magical secrets for corporation taming. Though they began better than New York or Philadelphia, they have only been using in these later stages of development the advantages which time will put in the hands of every city.

THE THIRD DUMA.

The results of the Russian elections, which are now nearly completed, show, on the face of the returns, an almost absolute majority for the Reactionaries in the new Duma. So confident are the Monarchist, or True Russian leaders, as they call themselves, or the Black Hundred, as they continue to be called by their opponents, that they have publicly announced their intention of proceeding to St. Petersburg, merely to aid a benevolent Czar in tiding over the present crisis, and then to bring about their own permanent dissolution, leaving Holy Russia safe at rest once more under the cherishing wing of the autocracy. The Empire has evidently travelled fast and far in the two years since the publication of the October manifesto, which gave to Russia its "Constitution." At that time the world saw an absolutist government in full panic, a people roused to the wildest expectations of political and social reform, the bureaucracy more than ready to go over to the masses, the nationalities within the Empire advancing more or less openly bold projects of autonomy or separation—Russia, in short, passing inevitably, it seemed, into revolution and dissolution. To-day, reaction feels itself firmly seated in the saddle, quite free from panic, audacious enough openly to violate its solemn pledges, and seemingly preparing, with supreme irony, to turn the Duma, created as an instrument for the regeneration of Russia, into a weapon for Russia's undoing.

This is the obviously dark side of the situation. The optimist, to make out his case, would argue somewhat on the following lines: The ascendency of the absolutist party in the new Duma is by no means a determined fact. The Reactionaries do not quite number one-half of the total membership, and they may be held in check by a combination of the two other great parties, the Octobrists, or Moderate Right, and the Constitutional Democrats; the Left is regarded as insignificant in the third Duma. Such a combination between the two parties which stand for the maintenance of the rights acquired under the Constitution of October 30, 1905, may possibly be brought about by the very excesses of the reactionary element; that something like coalition against the absolutists is already under way is reported in recent dispatches. In addition, it is the fact that most of the statesmanship and eloquence in the coming Duma will be found on the side of the anti-absolutists. The Octobrists and the Constitutional Democrats have succeeded in returning some of their most prominent leaders in the previous parliaments, and a notable gain is to be recorded in the election of Mr. Milyukoff, the virtual leader of the Constitutional Democrats, whom the government kept out of the first and second Dumas. Mr. Milyukoff's talent for organizing parliamentary majorities may again come into play, and a "Constitutional" *bloc* obtain control of the Duma.

But even if a fairly Liberal majority should get the upper hand, the question still remains, What can the new Duma hope to accomplish? That it will once more attempt to deal with the great problems which brought about the two former dissolutions is quite improbable. Political amnesty, ministerial responsibility, a thoroughgoing agrarian law—on these the government spoke with finality when it was faced by hostile radical Dumas; and, naturally, it will not bear contradiction now when it has the power. The Duma, at the present time, is in a position to do only what the government will allow. Should the autocracy decide upon sweeping aside all remnants of the Constitution by formally abolishing the Duma, it is strong enough, for the present, to do so. It need not fear an increase of resentment among the ranks of the radical masses, because there the government's course up to now has already created a maximum of irreconcilable hatred.

That the Czar and his ministers, however, will not go to the extreme of abolishing the Duma, is a practical certainty; for a distinction must be drawn, to some extent, between the government and its mob of fanatical supporters in the new Duma. The latter, like every parliamentary mob chosen in a period of reaction, is anxious only to please the powers in control, by foaming loyalty at the mouth, oblivious of consequences beyond a single parliamentary session. A government, even if it be the Russian government, cannot but have an eye to the near future, and that future is by no means an unclouded one for the autocracy. The Czar's government, therefore, now that it has a Duma it can control, will most probably allow it to perform the strictly salutary functions of "adviser" to an omnipotent autocracy, a function contemplated in the original manifesto of August 19, 1905.

What can the Liberal parties, under such circumstances, hope to accomplish? The Constitutional Democrats will probably decide to swallow the bitter pill, to accept the inevitable, and set to work to save what can be saved out of the wreck of Constitutional rights, in the hope of winning back little by little that complete charter of liberties which Russia enjoyed for two or three days after the thirtieth of October of two years ago. But a conciliatory policy on the part of the Constitutional Democrats would be more than playing for small concessions; it would be gaining time and opportunity for the recuperation of the working classes, whose efforts during the last two years have exhausted them, but without whose active participation, events have shown, there can be no real progress in Russia. The revolutionary leaders must reorganize their scattered forces, reëstablish discipline, and gather munitions of war before another upheaval like that of 1905 can be expected. Till then the Liberals in the Duma, acting as a rearguard, will probably try to save what they can out of the rout.

POPULARIZING THE BIBLE.

In the present effort to quicken interest in the Bible and increase the number of its readers, the argument commonly advanced is that the Bible is very entertaining. This, indeed, is the inference from the title of Senator Beveridge's last book, "The Bible as Good Reading." A generation or two ago there was no attempt to sugar-coat the pill. The Bible was the Bible, the inspired word of God and the one key to Heaven. Thus it was that children of five sat down dutifully to their chapter a day—long or short, rain or shine. The question whether you enjoyed the Bible was entirely irrelevant; you were not expected to enjoy it. The reading was as inevitable a part of daily routine as going to school, chopping kindlings, or washing your face. But as the dogma of verbal inspiration has lost its hold, as the belief has spread that the future of your immortal soul does not depend directly upon your knowledge of

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the Bible, and as learned critics have advanced the opinion that the Bible is merely one of many edifying books, the impelling motive for reading it has weakened. It must take its chances in competition with thousands of other more or less attractive books, with the newspapers and the illustrated magazines. These causes, we take it, fairly explain that deepening ignorance of the Bible which clergymen and also teachers of English so loudly lament.

To be sure, the higher critics eagerly assure us that the Bible contains some of the best literature in the world. This is the view which Matthew Arnold urged more than thirty years ago in "Literature and Dogma." Rejecting much of the current theology of his day, he maintained that the Bible must be approached from the point of view of culture. He insisted, as he says, on "the case for letters"; for by this means, he thought, "much fruit may be got out of the Bible." And this has been the attitude of many later writers. But, unfortunately, you cannot persuade people that culture will save them from the pains of hell; and thus it is that millions of amiable men and women care nothing about culture, and calmly neglect the Bible and all other great masterpieces of literature in order to read the last popular novel, the "storyettes" in the monthlies, and the vulgarities of the Sunday newspapers. Then, too, the Bible, regarded merely as literature, has suffered because many people have practically held to that motto which Mr. Arnold described as so ingeniously absurd, "The Bible, the whole Bible, and nothing but the Bible!" We have handed the whole Bible to our children, told them that it contains the most entertaining stories, like those about Joseph and his brethren and about Samson, and have then been surprised to see the book laid aside in half an hour. The truth is that, compared with the total bulk of the Bible, the amount of matter that is entertaining to the average child is relatively small; and the amount that is of the highest literary value is also small. A child cannot read the Bible for an hour without running upon some pretty dull passages; and adults who do not read primarily for religious instruction agree in testifying that the Bible can be enjoyed only by one who knows how to skip.

The case of the children was long ago recognized by publishers of books in which the Bible stories are retold—often in words of one syllable. But to read those was not to read the Bible itself; and the literary style of these books was often extremely crude. A distinct improvement on this method was shown in the volume entitled "The Bible for Children," arranged from the King James Version by Mrs. Joseph B. Gilder, and published by the Century Company in 1902. In the introduction to this excellent anthology Bishop Potter himself says:

> Not all of the Bible is of equal worth and pertinency; not all of it is of equal interest or utility. The old tradition that to read it through, mechanically and indiscriminatingly, two or three times a year, had of itself some occult and mysterious potency, has come to be recognized as belonging to the kindred tradition that soldiers' lives have been saved by a New Testament carried in the left breast pocket, because it was a Testament; whereas any other volume carried in the same place would have stopped the bullet quite as effectually.

Of course, the notion of making anthologies of this kind is not exactly new. The Psalms, the Epistles, and the Gospels in the Book of Common Prayer form a small but admirable anthology. The American Bible Society itself has printed in separate volumes not only the New Testament, but the Psalms and other portions for which there is special demand. But the importance, indeed the necessity, of presenting the Bible by selections is, we are glad to observe, becoming more generally understood. This autumn, for example, we have two volumes in apparent response to a growing demand: "The Soul of the Bible," made up of passages chosen by Ulysses G. B. Pierce, and published by the American Unitarian Association; and "The Literary Man's Bible" (Chapman & Hall), prepared by W. L. Courtney, editor of the *Fortnightly Review*. Mr. Courtney, in his preface, frankly avows the purpose of securing for the literary parts of the Bible a heartier appreciation:

> When so many people seemed to imagine that the Bible had nothing to do with literature, it appeared to me not an unprofitable task to attempt to prove that the Bible contains literary elements of priceless merit.

To such treatment the Bible lends itself admirably. It is not a unit: it is a collection of Hebrew prose and poetry; and the most pious and orthodox Christian cannot object to a volume of selections which shall give wider currency to the best of it.

For the shortcomings of the rising generation in Biblical knowledge are a topic of perennial discussion, here and in England. France, too, echoes the complaint. Not long ago, in *Figaro*, Marcel Prévost complained in an *obiter dictum* that "the children of the primary school to-day no longer learn the sacred history; they are ignorant for the most part of the beautiful story of Joseph sold by his brethren, of the Queen of Sheba, and of the war of the Maccabees." With that sentence as text, E. M. de Vogüé has written for *Figaro* a leading article in which he points out that the philosophies, the literatures, the arts, and the languages themselves of Western civilization have been nourished (*alimenté*) in large part from the Bible. The Biblical tradition impregnates all our fashions of thinking and speaking. A man totally unacquainted with the sacred history would go through the world as if deaf or blind. A people which loses familiarity with the Bible is exiled from its spiritual and intellectual fatherland, and becomes a tribe of outlaws. To these sentiments men of all creeds or no creed can subscribe. All inheritors of that great treasure, the King James Version, must welcome any anthology that may make the vital parts of it more accessible and popular.

DRAMATIC CENSORSHIP AGAIN.

A storm that has been brewing for some time seems likely to break soon upon the devoted head of George Alexander Redford, the British dramatic censor, or, to give him his legal title, Examiner of Plays. A committee of dramatists, belonging chiefly to what is generally but rather vaguely described as the advanced school, and other interested persons, is in process of formation, with a view to securing either the abolition of his office or a limitation of its authority. It is to be noted, however, that the movement, though not uninfluential, appears to be founded upon a sense of private injury, rather than upon any general public demand.

The immediate cause of it is the veto which Mr. Redford has put upon the production of two plays, one, "The Breaking Point," by Edward Garnett, son of the late Dr. Richard Garnett, of British Museum fame, and the other, "Waste," by Granville Barker, one of the most active and successful champions of the intellectual and imaginative theatre. Of the latter piece not much is yet publicly known, but Mr. Garnett's play has been published, and few unprejudiced readers will deem its exclusion from the stage an outrage. It is not immoral, but it is uselessly and unnecessarily crude in its references, unpleasant and improbable in its theme, and unnatural in its treatment. In this one instance, then, the censor can make out a good case in his own defence. He has not burked a masterpiece or eclipsed the gayety of nations, but the justice or injustice of a single decision on his part is, of course, an insignificant matter compared with the general question of the utility, the necessity, or the extent of his jurisdiction. And now that the English-speaking theatre, owing to the syndicate system, is rapidly becoming an international institution, the question is one that is not without interest on this side of the Atlantic.

Mr. Garnett, who is organizing the assault upon the censor, bases his indictment upon several "axioms." Among them are the following: (1) That it is not his function to suppress works of art, (2) that his sole function is to pre-

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vent "gross or prurient indecency," (3) that it is not his business to suppress intellectual plays criticising contemporary life or introducing new moral teaching. There are others, but these three will suffice; and, if the second is sound, manifestly two of them are superfluous. The first point to decide is what constitutes gross and prurient indecency. If this phrase is to be construed exactly, it can only mean acted obscenity, and that is a matter amply provided for by police regulations, and no specially qualified censor is needed. But the real danger to be guarded against, of course, is veiled indecency, the artful suggestion that puts a gloss upon vice, disguises vile and morbid passion in specious and alluring form, confuses right and wrong, and, under the pretence of serving truth or revealing beauty, panders to the lower instincts.

Nobody can deny that there is a large amount of such insidious poison in the modern European drama, or assert that it is either profitable or healthful for a mixed audience. Whether it might be instructive and inspiring to an assemblage of assorted specialists is another matter. To the young of both sexes, it is beyond all question highly demoralizing. The question then arises whether it is wiser, in a community which professes to set some store upon training and example, to give dramatists a free hand in dealing with such material, without reference either to manner or motive, expecting the consumers to provide their own antidote, or to subject them to some sort of regulation. If the latter plan be adopted, it is clear that the regulating authority ought to be endowed with a much larger share of wisdom and discretion than could reasonably be looked for in the average police officer. It is upon this theory, presumably, that the British censorship is still maintained, now that the original political significance of the office has practically disappeared.

That some kind of theatrical supervision and control is desirable, in the interests of literary and dramatic art, as well as of good morals, most reflecting persons will agree. The great difficulty lies in the selection of a competent tribunal, one that could not be suspected of bigotry, prejudice, favoritism, prudery, or excessive liberality. That the public feel instinctively the need of some such institution is possibly shown by the development of the unofficial guild of dramatic critics. These gentlemen might constitute a potent censorship, if their numbers, and the lack of recognized standards, did not preclude the possibility of their agreement. Experience seems to prove that the only practical censorship must consist of one man, or a very small commission. With us, the problem would be to keep it free from political and other malign influences; but there would be an abundance of work for it to do, if only in the suppression of the host of cheap and pestilential melodramas with which the whole country is overrun, and the posters of which are often a disgrace to our civilization.

Against Mr. Redford's integrity there has been no breath of suspicion. Only his judgment is impugned. Doubtless, he has made some mistakes, but he will not lack for sympathizers in his view that Tolstoy's "Powers of Darkness," Ibsen's "Ghosts," Brieux's "Maternité," Bernard Shaw's "Mrs. Warren's Profession," and "The Breaking Point," however benevolent they may be in purpose, contain matter that is unsuitable for popular entertainment. Mr. Garnett and some of his associates are quite sincere, doubtless, in their indignation and protestations; but there is a vast amount of hypocrisy beneath the pretended zeal of many of the advocates of the advanced drama. It is the prospect of financial gain, rather than any worship of art or intellect, that is too often the true incentive. There is a market for the abnormal and the lewd. Mr. Redford has been fighting honestly and courageously, if not always wisely, in behalf of that decent reticence which is an essential characteristic of the best art and good manners. Unfortunately, he cannot kill a rank play without advertising it—a fact of which American managers take prompt advantage. But if his censorship is ineffective here, that is not his fault.

A DISCOVERY OF JEWISH REMAINS IN EGYPT.

PARIS, November 1.

Prof. Charles Clermont-Ganneau, of the Collège de France, publishes a lengthy description of the striking results of recent excavations in the island of Elephantine. They prove the existence of a Jewish temple of Jehovah in that place under the twenty-seventh dynasty (from Persia), with remains from the reigns of Xerxes, Artaxerxes, Darius Nothus, and the second Artaxerxes. They furnish names already known from the Bible, and one mentioned by Josephus.

It will be remembered that M. Clermont-Ganneau's career in Semitic epigraphy began with his discovery of the Moabite Stone in 1870, when he was dragoman of the Franch consulate at Jerusalem. In spite of the opposition of Semitic scholars of the old school, and of certain hasty conclusions of his own, his wide knowledge of Semitic remains and inscriptions, and his detection of recurring archæological frauds won for him final recognition. The French government and university long since bestowed on him their confidence and highest honors. Several years ago he came into conflict with the authorized scholarship of the day concerning the precise epoch of the ten or so Aramæan texts, which so far comprised all that had been discovered of Semitic origin in the papyrus fragments. These were commonly attributed to the Greek period of the Ptolemies. M. Clermont-Ganneau placed them much farther back—during the Persian domination over Egypt. His conjecture was verified by successive discoveries of other Aramæan inscriptions explicitly dated from the years of the Persian reigns. A final papyrus (of the Strasburg library) proved under his skilful interpretation, where the German, Prof. Julius Euting, had failed, to be a petition of non-Egyptians against the priests of the god Chnemu of Elephantine. With his usual alertness M. Clermont-Ganneau decided that the petitioners must have been Jews of the exile; but he was unable to obtain government aid to verify his guess by new excavations.

In 1904 the natives, while extracting ammoniacal earth from the ruins, came on ten still perfect papyrus rolls, which were afterwards published by A. E. Cowley of Oxford. These consisted of notarial acts concerning Jewish inhabitants of Elephantine and the city of Syene, with concordant dates of the Aramæan and Egyptian calendars for a period of sixty years (between 470 and 410 B. C.). The oaths were in the name of Jehovah, God of Israel, and —what was most surprising—his sanctuary was shown not to be a mere synagogue, but a veritable temple with sacrifices quite as in the now ruined, but still exclusive temple of Jerusalem. "This was enough to make, perhaps did make Jeremiah howl," says M. Clermont-Ganneau. Thus accredited, he was sent last year by the Académie des Inscriptions on a mission of scientific excavation.

During four months, beginning with November, 1906, aided by M. Clédat, his oldest pupil, he used the funds supplied by Edmond de Rothschild in searching for this Jewish temple. A German mission had already preoccupied the greater part of the ground. A happy chance, in the part of the island which was left to them, directed the French diggers, after more than two months with none but Greek and Egyptian finds, to the very heart of the Jewish quarter. They soon came on quantities of ostraca bearing Aramæan inscriptions on both sides. These have not yet been completely deciphered; but enough is already known to disclose that they are of the same time, writing, and language as the previous papyrus. They contain among other matters of daily life a quite new form of the name Jehovah. The French excavations were stopped by the heat in April last, but are now to be renewed with the firm determination to resolve this mystery of the unknown temple.

Meanwhile, Herr Rubensohn of the German mission had found new papyrus fragments with important Aramæan inscriptions, of three of which a first interpretation has just been made by Prof. Eduard Sachau of Berlin. The first more than confirms all the conjectures of M. Clermont-Ganneau and starts up any number of questions in Jewish history and religion. It is a petition, dated from the seventeenth year of the reign of Darius Nothus, and addressed to Bagohi (the Bogoas of Josephus), Persian governor of Jerusalem, by Jedoniah and his fellow priests of Elephantine. It complains that their temple, built by their fathers to the "God of heaven," had been pillaged and destroyed by the manœuvres of the priests of the god Chnemu. Even Cambyses, they say, respected this temple when he de-

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stroyed those of the Egyptians. It was of cut stone, with seven monumental doors, stone columns and a cedar roof; and the sacred vessels were of gold and silver. Reference is made to a previous petition, which had also been sent to Yehohanan (Johanan), high priest at Jerusalem, to his brother Ostan Anani (Hanani), and separately to the sons of Sanaballat, governor of Samaria. These names, with that of Shelemiah, occur in the book of Nehemiah. The third papyrus shows that the petition for rebuilding their temple had been granted.

Prof. Clermont-Ganneau, with the vivacity which age and controversy have not quenched, adds:

Who knows? Our picks may yet discover, laid away in some secret "geniza," a copy of the sacred book which was used in the ceremonies of worship—a Bible anterior by five centuries to Jesus Christ!

S. D.

NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

Led by personal interest first incited by a visit to the Bermudas and his own efforts to trace material printed about them, George Watson Cole has for several years been contributing to the *Bulletin of Bibliography* a series of Notes on Bermuda Bibliography. These have now been reprinted "for the author" under the title "Bermuda in Periodical Literature," a well-made book of nearly three hundred pages. The editor points out in his Preface that by far the larger part of what has been written concerning Bermuda has appeared in periodicals or in transactions of learned societies; and, while the 1382 items recorded include a number of books, most of them relate to such scattered articles. Mr. Cole's work is much more than would be expected from the title. Almost every entry is followed by a note of explanation or an extract from the article itself, and some of these are interesting reading. The Index is elaborate, and contains authors' names, places, and scientific and common names of plants and animals. Three hundred and fifty are copies have been printed, of which fifty are on large paper. The volume is illustrated with facsimiles of title-pages of eight of the earliest and rarest books referring to Bermuda, and a photogravure portrait of the author.

Albert Matthews has been making a careful study of early Boston newspapers, and the result of his investigations, published by the Colonial Society of Massachusetts as the third part of its important check-list and collations of issues, has also been issued separately with the title "Bibliographical Notes on Boston Newspapers 1704-1780." It is filled with interesting notes and extracts. The first attempt at a newspaper to be printed in America was a sheet, which appeared in Boston in the autumn of 1690, having the title *Publick Occurrences Both Foreign and Domestick.* It was immediately suppressed by the authorities, only one number, that for September 25, being issued, and of that number the only specimen known is in the Public Record Office, London. The next attempt was more successful: the *Boston News-Letter* began April 24, 1704, and lasted with frequent change of name and of publisher until 1769. Its first publisher was John Campbell, postmaster of Boston; and it is a curious fact that for fifty years, 1704 to 1754, every postmaster of the city was also the publisher of a newspaper. The second Boston newspaper, the Boston *Gazette,* was begun in 1719, by William Brooker, Campbell's successor in the post office. The third Boston newspaper, the *New England Courant,* is of more interest, on account of Benjamin Franklin's connection with it. Its publication was begun by James Franklin on August 7, 1721. Owing to its frequent criticism of government affairs and freedom of speech on religious and other subjects, the General Court ordered in January, 1723, that James Franklin "be strictly forbidden . . . to Print or Publish the *New England Courant* or any Pamphlet or Paper of the Like Nature, except it be first supervised by the Secretary of this Province." The number for February 11, 1723, contained a notice beginning:

The late publisher of this Paper, finding so many inconveniences would arise by his carrying the Manuscripts and publick News to be supervis'd by the Secretary, as to render his carrying it on unprofitable, has intierely dropt the Undertaking. The present Publisher having receiv'd the following Piece, etc.

The "Present Publisher" was Benjamin Franklin, James's younger brother, then a boy of seventeen; and the paper appeared over his name for several months, or until he ran away to New York and Philadelphia. Mr. Matthews's summary shows that between 1704 and 1780 no less than 13,680 issues of various newspapers appeared in Boston. Of about 10 per cent. of these no copies are now known to exist. Of the others almost all are to be found in one or another of the great Boston libraries (the Public, the Massachusetts Historical Society, and the Athenæum), or in the library of the American Antiquarian Society at Worcester. But of some numbers the only known copies are in the Lenox or New York Historical Society libraries in New York or in the library of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin, which is especially rich in files of colonial newspapers.

Reports have been received by cable of the prices paid for some of the rarest items of Americana in the sale of the books of the Earl of Sheffield at Sotheby's in London, November 4 and 5. Daniel Denton's "Brief Description of New-York, formerly called New-Netherlands," 1670, a fine copy with the date, brought £350. The record is £400, paid for Lord Ashburton's copy in 1900. Edward Winslow's "Good Newes from New England," 1624, brought £250 (the Ashburton copy, £240 in 1900); and Higginson's "New England's Plantation," 1630, the second edition, but containing more matter than the first, published the same year, £100. "A True Relation of the late Battell fought in New England, between the English and the Pequet Salvages," by Philip Vincent, 1638, the second edition, went for £83; and Underhill's "Newes from America," 1638, the second of the contemporary printed accounts of the Pequot war, a fine copy, with the rare folding "figure of the Indian Fort or Palizado," £245. We know of no previous sale at auction of a copy with the plan. A pamphlet of four leaves, "Strange News from Virginia; being a full and true account of the Life and Death of Nathaniel Bacon," 1677, was bid up to £99.

Correspondence.

WORDSWORTH AND GAY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: One of the cardinal principles of Wordsworth's poetical creed was detestation of the poets who looked to Pope as master. Of these none stood closer to Pope than John Gay. This fact may lend interest to the following literary parallel.

In Wordsworth's "To a Skylark," published in 1827, occur the following lines (3-6):

Or, while the wings aspire, are heart and eye
Both with thy nest upon the dewy ground?
Thy nest which thou canst *drop into* at will,
Those quivering wings composed, that music still!

A hundred years earlier, in Gay's well-known ballad, "Sweet William's Farewell to Black-eyed Susan," stanza iii. contains the following lines:

So the sweet lark, high-poised in air,
Shuts close his pinions to his breast
(If, chance, his mate's shrill call be hear),
And *drops at once into her nest.*

The verbal correspondence may be only a coincidence; but Gay's description of the lark certainly shows "the eye on the object" quite as surely as does Wordsworth's.

Frank H. Chase.

Beloit College, October 26.

THE "PUBLIUS" LETTERS ATTACKING SAMUEL CHASE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: More than twenty years ago (in 1886) I pointed out that the letters of Hamilton, signed "Publius" and printed in 1778, were directed against Samuel Chase, a member of the Continental Congress from Maryland, who had used information gained in Congress to speculate on the army's need for flour. The evidence on this matter was summarized in the New York *Evening Post,* November 1, 1886. Bernard C. Steiner, in his "Life and Correspondence of James McHenry" (Burrows Bros. Co.), gives a foot-note to the effect that in January, 1782, McHenry wrote to Hamilton and Edward Giles "refusing to tell the name of Publius, but adding that he would send Publius, who is not an inhabitant of the State, the proceedings of the House of Delegates in the case of Cadwalader against Chase, and will tell Publius's name only in case he is willing to retract." But Mr. Steiner apparently was not aware of the identity of Publius, or of the controversy involved. I have just found in the Hamilton manuscripts a draft of a letter, evidently written to McHenry, and adding one more item to the history of this abuse of his position by a member of Congress. This draft must have been known to the editors of Hamilton's writings, but was omitted because of the difficulty of knowing who C——e represented. Now that the occasion of the letter is known, it becomes an interesting and characteristic expression of feeling on the part of Hamilton.

Worthington C. Ford.

Washington, November 1.

I am much obliged to you for the papers you transmitted me on the subject of Mr. C——e. Nothing gives me greater pleasure

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on all occasions than to see suspected and injured innocence vindicated, nor would any person more chearfully retract an ill-founded accusation, on conviction of its error, than myself. You know the motives and the grounds of my charges against Mr. C——e, *at a period fertile in practices* as pernicious as base. You know that *I can have no* personal enmity for him, and that considerations of public good alone dictated my attack upon his conduct and character, influenced by a persuasion produced by the strongest authorities, that he was acting a part inconsistent with patriotism or honor. You are not less convinced, that if the evidence of his innocence ballanced in my mind that of his guilt, I could not refuse it to my own feelings, to make him the most explicit and complete retribution. But hitherto, it is impossible that this can be the case. My witness, one of them is entirely out of my reach, the other too remote to enable me to have yet known what he may have to oppose to the late transactions in Mr. C——e's favour. The informations of both were too positive, their characters are too respectable to permit me lightly to relinquish the impressions of their testimony. I have too often seen public assemblies acquit guilt from prepossession, party spirit, want of formality or certainty (though there has been the greatest probability) in the evidence, to allow myself to regard the determination of your's as conclusive. I respect however the decision of such a body too much not to be induced by it to *doubt* and *examine*. This I shall do and govern myself by the result.

As to the discovery of my name, demanded with such preposterous vehemence, by a volunteer in the dispute, I conceive myself under no obligation to make it; *especially to a person uninterested in the matter*. I have esteemed Major Giles's character, and am sorry for his sake that he has so indelicately entered the lists; and made himself; not only the champion of Mr. Ch—e's innocence in the present case, but *of his virtues in general*, certainly at best equivocal, in spite of the Major's panygerics. He should have recollected, that by an alliance with his family, he did not ally himself with his principles; and that he degrades Mr. Ch—e, as well as *commits himself by unnecessarily* taking up the glove for him. I attribute it however to an imprudent generosity of temper, and forbear any strictures that may wound him. You, sir, who are acquainted with me must be convinced that an apprehension of his, or any man's resentment is a motive incapable of operating upon me, or having the least share either in the concealment of my name or in the moderate return I make to his invictives.

I have the honor, &c.

Feby. 26, '82.

THE REPUBLICATION OF OLMSTED.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Notice of the republication of Mr. Olmsted's books, written before the war, on the condition of the slave States, lately appeared in the *Nation*. Remembering the interest excited by their first appearance fifty years ago, I have taken up and re-read his "Seaboard Slave States." Indeed, I found it difficult to lay the book down until I had finished it. What a picture of States founded on slavery! Republication cannot but enable us to mark more clearly than at present the advances made under freedom, and to discount the opinions of those who even still strive to represent the relations of master and slave, as the only wise ones to subsist between the white and negro races. How interesting it would be if some capable writer as honest and fair-minded as Olmsted followed his wanderings, and enabled us actually to compare the present with the past. It might, indeed, pay an enterprising publisher to commission some competent person to the task.

Alfred Webb.

Dublin, October 28.

FRATERNITIES IN THE SMALL COLLEGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The proposal of President Wilson to substitute residential quadrangles for the familiar clubs at Princeton, calls attention once more to the recurring problem of the organization of undergraduate social life in American colleges. In spite of captious critics, it does not appear that those small colleges which have clung so tenaciously to the Greek letter fraternities have after all fared worse than those larger institutions, which in their wisdom abolished fraternities—and left the recalcitrant undergraduates to recombine in so-called dining clubs. Given the American youth and the American college with its strong insistence upon "all-round manhood" rather than scholarship, some sort of social grouping is inevitable. Now that the storms that beat upon college fraternities a quarter of a century ago have subsided, it is possible to measure with some degree of impartiality their worth or worthlessness. Not the least remarkable aspect of the present situation in those small colleges where fraternities have stood their ground, is the absence of the old town versus gown feeling. Nearly a score of years ago, the writer attended a town meeting in a college town in western Massachusetts, in which discussion turned upon a certain new chapter house. An irate citizen whose land abutted upon the fraternity grounds, and who had unpleasant prepossessions about his new neighbors, exclaimed, "I tell ye, I'd as soon have a nest of skunks in my cellar." It is the almost universal testimony of the older inhabitants of at least one old college town in New England, that the traces of *original sin in the present undergraduate* are far less conspicuous than before the régime of the chapter house. There is, indeed, strong reason to believe that the fraternities should be credited with some part in this regenerative process.

Among the older New England institutions, Bowdoin College presents an interesting example of the functioning of fraternities in the undergraduate life, since all but 9 per cent. of the students are members of one or another of the eight societies. All the fraternities now possess comfortable chapter houses, which occupy some of the most desirable sites in town. Their total valuation is put at $73,000, which yields the town taxes to the amount of $1,500. This, in a town which places a valuation of only about $3,600,000 upon all of its taxable property, is a very considerable sum. Ownership of property, with its attendant responsibilities, has unquestionably heightened the sense of corporate responsibility in the undergraduate members of these fraternities. So long as the student was an irresponsible tenant in a dreary dormitory he exhibited no concern about the property of either college or townspeople. Happy the householder who could keep a front gate on its hinges when the bonfires of victory were lighted. As landlord, the student views depredations upon private property with far different eyes. As a member of the commonalty, he has developed a rudimentary social consciousness.

Fraternity pride has contributed also to the social education of the undergraduate. A wholesome inter-fraternity rivalry has created conventional penalties for the particular society which sins. The consciousness that the fraternity may suffer from individual wrongdoing, is often an excellent deterrent. A wise administration has more than once made use of this *esprit de corps* to discipline flagrant offenders. Indeed, there have been instances where the fraternity has rendered most effective service to the college by itself taking the initiative in matters of social reform. Like the Anglo-Saxon *tithing*, the fraternity is in a sense pledged to the keeping of the peace.

Those who live in the immediate presence of fraternities and who witness daily and hourly the boyish, careless, undergraduate life, must needs shut their eyes to many on-goings, if these complacent reflections are not to be proved suppositions contrary to fact. The history of college fraternities is a series of lapses from grace, and of buoyant recoveries. The comforting and convincing fact is that recovery surely comes. In the long run, loyal alumni can be counted upon to apply the needed corrective, when a local chapter loses its standing.

But above all else, the fraternity stands for a phase of education which is often too lightly valued. It is the testimony of a mature observer, for many years a teacher in a technical school of national repute, that, other things being equal, the college graduate who comes to his technical courses comparatively late will, in the end, outstrip his schoolmate who lacks the academic training, in competition for positions requiring administrative talent. American society has come to put a high premium upon this peculiar talent. The ability to achieve desired ends, by sound judgment in the employment of human agents, may be a congenital gift, but it is surely fostered and brought to ripe maturity by contact with men. Membership in a college fraternity has often drawn men out of themselves, forced them to take the measure of their associates, and thrust responsibilities upon them. There is no better school for temper than the constant attrition which results from the close contacts within fraternities. Through his fraternity, if at all, the bookish youth is brought into touch with realities; in the give and take of intimate friendship, he may achieve self-mastery.

That there are real dangers from this remarkable growth of fraternities in the small college, no one will deny; but they are of a different sort from those which haunt the minds of parents. A not unfriendly critic once remarked, "You have eight colleges at Bowdoin." The menace of fraternities to the small college is the tendency to exalt the part at the expense of the whole, to transfer to the fraternity the allegiance which belongs to the college. Yet it is possible to exaggerate this tendency. Integrating influences are constantly operative. The diamond, the gridiron, and the gymnasium cannot be permanently dominated by cliques. Clubs innumerable draw undergraduates together in entire forgetfulness of fraternal bonds. Moreover, where the chapter houses offer accommoda-

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tions to less than half the members, and where lower classmen for the most part are relegated to the dormitories, the dangers of divided allegiance are remote. Those who have observed the history of Greek letter fraternities in small colleges may regret many unhappy concomitants of the system; but were they asked to suggest a more effective organization of social life, they would postpone their decision.

ALLEN JOHNSON.

Bowdoin College, Brunswick, Me., October 23.

POWER OF THE YALE FACULTY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In an article of mine in the October *Atlantic*, on "Externalism in American Universities," occurs the sentence:

Chiefly at Yale of all the leading universities is there some vestige of real power remaining to the faculty.

To those who have fuller personal acquaintance with the facts, the expression "some vestige of real power" has seemed entirely insufficient. And because of the importance of Yale's example, and to correct any wrong impression which my own statement may have given, I have asked the kind permission of Prof. E. P. Morris to quote from a letter which he has had the courteous interest to write me:

The printed constitution gives the professors in each department (Yale College, the Sheffield Scientific School, the Law School) the determination of the "permanent policy" of the department, subject to the concurrence of the President and to ratification by the Corporation. As interpreted by custom here, this means that the professors settle the course of study, fix standards and methods of instruction, adjust the relations between departments, and determine how much instruction is needed. In particular, we have by vote of the Corporation the right to nominate all officers of instruction, whether permanent or non-permanent, and in the case of appointments for a limited term we recommend the amount of the salary. We make out every year a budget of the expenses of instruction, we appoint and name our own committees, we make our own rules for the conduct of our business, and we elect our own dean.

In all these matters our action is subject to the concurrence of the President and the Corporation, but here custom supplements written law; the veto power of the President is very rarely used, and during the sixteen years that are within my personal knowledge the Corporation has not found it necessary to reject a nomination made by us.

This may not be an ideal constitution, but it seems to me to embody some sound principles. The Corporation, to whom the credit of shaping it belongs, has reserved to itself the management of the finances—the heaviest of the responsibilities—and the final decision in matters of importance, but has desired to divide the other responsibilities and to place them in the hands of those who can best meet them. Such a division of power is safe, I suppose, only where it is backed by a long tradition of independence and of friendly feeling; nothing prevents friction so well as a sense of common responsibility.

An authoritative statement of the extent of faculty power at Yale will certainly be appreciated by all to whom our academic constitutions are of interest, and who have been struck by the fact that the form of government in most of our colleges is so contrary to that of European universities generally, and in such contrast to the political forms which prevail with us.

GEORGE M. STRATTON.

The Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, November 5.

Notes.

Next week Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will have the following books ready: "Greece and the Ægean Islands," by Philip S. Marden"; "Memoirs of Monsieur Claude, Chief of the Police under the Second Empire," translated by Katharine Prescott Wormeley; "Longfellow's Sonnets," edited by Ferris Greenslet; "Life of William Pitt Fessenden," by Francis Fessenden; "Federal Regulation of Railway Rates," by Albert N. Merritt; and the ninth volume of the Riverside edition of Thomas Bailey Aldrich's Works.

Albert H. Smyth's edition of Franklin has been added to Macmillan's Eversley Series, in ten convenient and low-priced volumes.

Owen Wister's next book, to be published by the Macmillan Co., is "The Seven Ages of Washington," a study of the character of the first President and an estimate of his influence on the institutions of the country.

Henry Holt & Co. are publishing, in conjunction with Sir Isaac Pitman & Sons of London, "Shirley Brooks, of Punch: His Life, Letters, and Diaries," by George Somes Layard. Brooks was an attractive character, and his memoirs ought to be unusually interesting.

The English copyright on "Alice in Wonderland" expires this month, and cheap editions of the book are expected to invade England as they have already invaded this country. But the Tenniel illustrations are still under copyright.

T. Fisher Unwin publishes this month the first issue of the *International: a Review of the World's Progress*, edited by Dr. Rodolphe Broda of Paris. Dr. Broda has enrolled a permanent staff of correspondents all over the world to the number of about 250, who will contribute notes on political, economic, scientific, artistic, literary, and religious events. The review is published simultaneously in English, German, and French.

From John Lane Co. we have three copiously illustrated additions to the Spanish Series: "Toledo: An Historical and Descriptive Account," "Seville," and "Granada and the Alhambra," all by Albert F. Calvert. The illustration's frankly the thing. In each case a condensed and dry historical sketch is supplemented by a dash of guide-book; but it is the massed plates at the end which give to the books their peculiar value. The reproductions embrace not only natural scenery, with architectural and historical monuments, but paintings and endless details of building and ornamentation. Everything, in fact, is given except color. That is a necessary but grievous lack in Toledo, for example, where black and white can only suggest the real effect. One finds an occasional mistranslation—"gate" for *puerta* is awkward in the extreme, for the Cathedral—and there is at least one wrong label on a picture. But on the whole, there is little but praise for the plan and execution of these well-printed volumes. The plates are small in size, but clear, and will serve whether as material for study or as precious memoranda for the returned traveller.

The Johns Hopkins dissertation "Dares and Dictys" (Baltimore: J. H. Furst Co.), by Nathaniel Edward Griffin, is part of a larger work planned by the author. It consists almost entirely of a study of the origin of the "Ephemeris Belli Troiani" which goes under the name of Dictys of Crete. The unpublished section will conclude the discussion of this subject, and will deal also with the origin of the "De Excidio Troiæ" of Dares. By a curious coincidence the careful and elaborate argument which Dr. Griffin has presented in order to prove (what many scholars had already maintained) that the Latin "Ephemeris" of Dictys is really a translation from a lost Greek work was rendered unnecessary almost as soon as it appeared, by the publication of a substantial fragment of the actual Greek original in Part II. of the Tebtunis Papyri edited by Grenfell, Hunt, and Goodspeed. This fragment was found written on the back of a series of revenue returns dated in the year 206 A. D., and in the opinion of the editors is itself of about that date. As they remark, this puts back the date of composition of the Greek original to the second or, more probably, to the first century of the Christian era, so that "the traditional reference to the reign of Nero is no longer to be laughed out of court." This same discovery gives also the fullest confirmation to the contention of Dr. Griffin and others that the Byzantine historian, Johannes Malalas, drew directly from the Greek and not from the Latin version. Although the publication of the fragment has done away with the necessity for argument on the main proposition, one may still read with profit Dr. Griffin's discussion of the work of Dictys—especially as that work appears to have undergone different redactions in the centuries following its composition. Perhaps with the aid of the Greek fragment Dr. Griffin may be able to throw some light on this subject. A comparison with the Latin "Ephemeris" will be of particular interest, inasmuch as it was this version that influenced the writers of the mediæval romances concerning the legend of Troy.

Under the pseudonym of "Le petit homme rouge" an English journalist who has long been in close touch with French politics and literature publishes "Court Life of the Second French Empire" (Charles Scribner's Sons). Without containing anything very novel, the book gives a temperate and readable account of the working of the Court of Napoleon III., especially on the financial side, and deals with most of the personalities that composed it. The author is scrupulously fair to the Emperor, his knowledge of Paris is intimate, and his narrative is on the whole accurate.

Maeterlinck's essay on the signs of reasoning in plants gave its name, "L'Intelligence des Fleurs," to the collection of essays that, in the English translation, is entitled "The Measure of the Hours." It is now published separately under the title, "The Intelligence of the Flowers" (Dodd, Mead & Co.). It is by far the most interesting of Maeterlinck's latest essays (which were reviewed in these columns June 13, 1907), and will be welcomed by many in its new dress. The translation is, as before, by A. T. de Mattos, and the

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illustrations, a new feature, are from full-page photographs by A. L. Coburn. The margins are decorated by W. E. Fisher, and if one must have decorated margins, these with their subdued tone, are least likely to annoy the reader. The cover is pleasing, and the volume, as a whole is a good example of the decorated gift-book.

A new monthly, *Zeitschrift für Religionspsychologie*, with the significant sub-title *Grenzfragen der Theologie und Medizin*, is published by the house of C. Marhold in Halle, and edited by a physician, Dr. Johannes Bresler, and a minister, Pastor Gustav Vorbrodt. The purpose is evidently a physiologico-psychological explanation of religious phenomena.

In the recent work of Prof. Karl Beth of Vienna, entitled "Die Moderne und die Prinzipien der Theologie" (Berlin: Trowitzsch & Sohn), we have one of the latest and best expressions of a new school of conservative theological thought, which demands that the traditional dogma must come to some kind of understanding with modern thought and criticism even at a sacrifice. The movement itself was started perhaps two years ago by the work of Superintendent Th. Kaftan of Kiel, entitled "Die neue Theologie des alten Glaubens," in which this influential churchman demanded indeed adherence to the three fundamentals of the divinity of Christ, the Atonement, and the Trinity, but was willing to discard, among other things, the theory of verbal inspiration. Kaftan's scheme is largely along the lines of the best Ritschlian theology. Another pathfinder in this tendency is Prof. R. Seeberg; the conservative colleague of the more critical Harnack, in Berlin. In his new work on the Principles of Protestanism he cuts out from the traditional Protestant system matter that he regards as not based on the Scriptures, but as developed by a sort of "rationalistic orthodoxy." On the other hand, Prof. W. Bousset of Göttingen, in a long series of essays in the *Theologische Rundschau*, declares that the new movement is an unsatisfactory compromise, and Prof. Wilhelm Herrmann of Marburg agrees with him. Beth's work is not only a discussion of the new principles involved, but also a full historical analysis of the genesis and development of the new school. It costs 5.50 marks.

In the posthumous work of Prof. W. Wrede, entitled "Die Entstehung der Schriften des Neuen Testament" (Tübingen: Mohr), we have in the shape of three lectures, delivered originally in 1904, and entitled "Paulus und die paulinische Briefliteratur, Die Evangelien, und Die Übrigen Schriften," a popular and clear expression of the more advanced views of modern criticism with reference to the origin of the different New Testament books. Wrede was the author of the work on Paul in the Religionsgeschichtliche Volksbücher, in which he took a rather hostile attitude toward this Apostle, especially in relation to the teaching of Christ, and these views are now repeated. Since Harnack's late works on Luke and the Acts, some of Wrede's views on these subjects have been made more than doubtful, but as a summary of critical views on a central problem of theological thought, this booklet of 112 pages merits close, although discriminating, study.

The new edition of "Meyers Konversations-Lexikon" has reached its sixteenth volume extending from Plaketten to Rinteln. The quality of freshness, of which the publisher of every new encyclopædia is eager to boast, stands out here in such leading articles as "Polarforschung"; "Polen," which makes mention of the part played by the Polish deputies in the first Russian Duma; and "Preussen," the history of which is brought down to July, 1906. The volume contains an excellent map of the globe representing the distribution of religions and Western missionary activity. Every mission station in Africa, China, and India is indicated, with its proper denomination, on separate sketch maps; an extremely useful feature in view of the frequency with which the missionary question appears in the present affairs of China and the Congo.

We have also received the first volume of "Meyers Kleines Konversations-Lexikon," extending from A to Cambric. The scope of this work has been entirely changed by an increase in the number of volumes from three to six, a step taken by the publishers, according to their own statement, in order to place before the public a work that should be at the same time comprehensive and low-priced. The 1,038 pages of the first volume correspond to some 2,500 pages in the large Lexikon, so that the new six-volume edition will be a little less than half the size of the parent work, and will correspond rather to one of our own smaller encyclopædias than remain a mere condensation. Comparing the articles in the first volume with the same titles in the *Grosses Meyer*, we find that the scale of one-half is not always maintained. Thus "Amerikanische Altertümer," which receives seven columns in the twenty-volume edition, has only one column in the present volume; "Afrika" is reduced from 25 pages to 8; "Asien" from 22 pages to 5; "Bier" from 15 columns to 4; and "Bildhauerei" from 20 columns to one. Colored plates are much more sparingly used. Nevertheless, the smaller work, which sells at one-third the price of the large editions, seems to be prepared with the same scholarly care and to be well adapted for its purpose.

Under the title of "Die Mandschurei, Bilder aus dem russisch-japanesischen Kriege," the house of Karl W. Hiersemann of Leipzig has published an exceedingly interesting album of 389 war pictures on 122 large sheets. The album itself, prepared in St. Petersburg, contains the work of noteworthy Russian artists, done in aquarelle and in pen drawing, together with some photographs of officers on the field.

The fiftieth birthday of Hermann Sudermann, September 30, was marked by the appearance of the one hundredth edition of his novel entitled "Frau Sorge," which was first published in 1887. The house of J. G. Cotta has brought out the edition in exceptionally fine form, together with as excellent picture of the author.

Jules Renard, who has been elected to the seat of the late J. K. Huysmans in the Goncourt Academy of Ten, fitly represents the ideas of the founders. He is so independent that he made no canvass; he does not even live in Paris, but in the jealous retirement of a provincial hamlet. He is forty-three years old, and studied at the École Normale before it had lost its splendid literary character. He did not finish, but was obliged to go into commerce until literature could support him. At twenty-two he began with verses—"Les Roses"—but shortly found his way in sharp, clear, pointed stories etched from keenly sympathetic observation of everyday lives. His great success came with "Poil de Carotte"—the thoughts and feelings and unhappiness of an overlooked boy, child of a careless mother who is too indulgent to the others, her favorites. Jules Renard is remarkable for his simple, direct, and personal expression, without waste of words. He has had a certain success in short pieces at the theatre. Prof. W. G. C. Byvanck's book "Un Hollandais à Paris en 1891" set him down as the representative of "the generation of to-day." Another generation has arisen since then, but he remains a noteworthy figure of that activity in pure letters which has for its organ the *Mercure de France*, founded by him and his coevals.

The Rev. Reuen Thomas, pastor of the Harvard Congregational Church in Brookline, well known in Congregational circles in England and America, died in Brookline November 9. Born in Warwickshire, England, in 1840, he attended the Collegiate School of Sutton-Caldfield and University College, London, and entered the Congregational ministry in 1862 as assistant to the Rev. Newman Hall, of Christ Church, London. Later he continued his studies at the University of Rostock, Germany, and received the degree of doctor of philosophy in 1865. After holding pastorates in Liverpool and London, he accepted a call from the Harvard Church, of Brookline, in 1875. Dr. Thomas was the author of several books, including "Divine Sovereignty," 1885; "Through Death to Life," 1888; "Leaders of Thought in the Christian Church," 1892; "Kinship of Souls," 1899; and "Grafenburg People"; and he was a frequent contributor to reviews and religious periodicals on both sides of the Atlantic.

The death is announced from London of Gerald Massey, in his eightieth year. His poems, first published in 1889, under the title of "My Lyrical Life," have been several times reissued. Other books of his are "Voices of Freedom and Lyrics of Love," 1851; "The Ballad of Babe Christabel," 1854; "Craigcrook Castle," 1855; "Shakespeare's Sonnets Never Before Interpreted," 1866; "Concerning Spiritualism," 1871; "The Natural Genesis." 1883.

AMERICAN COLONIAL HISTORY.

The American Colonies in the Seventeenth Century. By Herbert L. Osgood. Vol. III. Imperial Control: Beginnings of the System of Royal Provinces. New York: The Macmillan Company. $3 net.

In accordance with his plan announced several years ago, Professor Osgood has completed his study of the colonies in the seventeenth century by the issue of the third volume, dealing with imperial control. As far as method, style, and temperament are concerned, the present volume in no way differs from those that have gone before. There is the same impersonal objective mode of approach, the same rigidly scientific in-

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terpretation of facts, the same interest in the legal and institutional aspects of the subject, and the same disregard of all that is dramatic and picturesque. We read little of religion, education, and literature, and nothing of housing, domestic economy, food, the turf, architecture, fashion, or social relations. It is true that the colonists in the seventeenth century were little concerned with some of these things, but had they been concerned, Professor Osgood would have displayed little interest in making such topics a part of his treatment. His business is to present the colonies as institutions whose place and history are capable of exact legal definition, whose internal and external development deserves analysis from the point of view of government, administration, and law, and whose place in the scheme of world history can be logically determined. The first two volumes were devoted to the colonies considered as separate entities, under corporate or proprietary management, without regard to their connection with the higher authority in England; the third is designed to present them as parts of a growing imperial system, the head and the centre of which were in London, and the circumference of which embraced the far-lying settlements that formed the crude material out of which the empire, apart from the kingdom, was gradually taking shape.

The steps in this process, as far as they concerned the original thirteen colonies in the seventeenth century, form the chief interest of Professor Osgood's book. Though presenting much that is new and hitherto unknown, it rehearses, in the main, facts that are more or less familiar. But the story of the colonies has a new look, the old friend has a new face, the landscape is seen in a new perspective, the proportions are adapted to a new scale; certain phases of the subject that formerly played little part in colonial history here occupy a large space on the canvas, while others that used to be, and still are, stock in trade to many a writer, have either disappeared altogether or been relegated to a very unimportant place. And these changes in the size and proportion of things have all taken place because Professor Osgood has chosen to believe that the home government was a factor which played a very influential part in colonial history, and that its policy, system of control, and actual management of colonial affairs form a subject so essential to an understanding of colonial history that its omission from nearly all the earlier treatises upon the colonies will always remain something of a mystery. For a number of years a few scholars have cried out against this neglect; but now that Professor Osgood's book is before the public a wider circle of students will appreciate the significance of the omission. Professor Osgood states his purpose and sums up the situation in the following words:

> In the present volume attention will be called to the influence which was exerted over the colonies and over the proprietors who coöperated in founding them by the British government, that is, by the sovereign power under whose protection they all came into existence. Under this aspect of the subject the emphasis will be laid on British and general imperial interests, which operated as a restraint upon the tendencies in the colonies toward local independence. . . . Historians have hitherto neglected this side of the subject or have treated it as foreign or inimical to the colonies. . . . To the colonists such authority was certainly not foreign; . . . It was a part and a condition of their existence. When properly exercised this authority did not involve a meddlesome interference, but was as necessary and inevitable as were the tendencies toward isolation and independence in the colonies themselves.

After an opening chapter on the nature and organs of imperial control, Professor Osgood passes to the first concrete illustrations of British policy, the dissolution of the Virginia Company and the relations with Massachusetts prior to the great Civil War. He continues the history of Virginia as the first royal colony from 1624 to 1640, and then, turning to the home government, traces the variations in its colonial policy and management during the Civil War, the Interregnum, and the Restoration until 1675, narrating at length the experiences of the Royal Commission of 1664. At this point he resumes his outline of events in Virginia, analyzes the causes and results of Bacon's rebellion, the career of the Royal Commission of 1677, and carries the history of Virginia to the close of Effingham's administration in 1689. Then turning to New England, he deals with the difficult question of England's later relations with Massachusetts and the dissolution of the company, with royal government in New Hampshire and New York, and with the establishment of the Dominion of New England. His final chapters concern the Revolution and its after results in New England, New York, and Maryland, and finish with a brief summary of conclusions, covering the leading aspects of his work.

From this brief statement and from a further perusal of the work, two conspicuous limitations appear: First, Professor Osgood has confined his attention to the territory of the United States and to the relations of the British Government with the original thirteen colonies. He says:

> This book contains less than a history of British colonial administration because the island colonies, with Newfoundland and Nova Scotia, are for the most part left out of account. . . . If one were treating of colonial administration alone, without particular reference also to institutions of the United States, he would take his stand in England and trace the development of the system wherever it appeared along the entire American coast. The plan of these volumes is somewhat more restricted than this, and limits our attention chiefly to the middle section of the great arc [from Newfoundland to Trinidad]. But the existence of the colonies which did not become parts of the United States must not be forgotten. . . . Administrative control by the British government over the island colonies became at an early date continuous and vigorous. After the Restoration the system of royal government was rapidly extended over these colonies; royal appointees of all sorts were sent among them, . . . elaborate sets of instructions were given to the governors. . . . Precedents which were favorable to active imperial administration were first established on a large scale in the government of the island colonies. The system was most thoroughly tested there.

In the second place, Professor Osgood has further restricted his field by ignoring to a very considerable extent all questions of trade and commerce, illicit trading and smuggling, money and exchange, trade-routes and markets, and problems of British revenue. Had he not done so, he would have been compelled to take cognizance of the island and other colonies that he expressly places outside the sphere of his interest. He is not writing a history of British colonial administration. Perhaps for this reason he is able to throw but little light upon the actual operation of the British system in America, and contents himself with recounting certain exceptional incidents that came to the attention of the home authorities, connected with the names of Randolph, Rousby, Bland, and Miller. Of the system itself, established after 1672, he tells us practically nothing. It is probable that in the end, even after all the data are collected, there will be but little to tell, as information on that point is scanty; but Professor Osgood might have laid a little more stress upon the machinery set up to collect the "plantation duty" under the Act of 1672, even though many of its early features will always remain more or less obscure.

In three particulars does Professor Osgood differ in his manner of approaching his subject from the writers who have preceded him. The first point of difference is that he views the colonies, particularly the royal colonies, as British dependencies subject to a higher sovereign authority in London; secondly, he treats as essential and organic parts of his subject such topics as the growth of British colonial policy, British organs of administration, the acts of trade, and the royal commissions—some of which will appear as novelties to many readers of colonial history—and he sets them in the very forefront of his narrative; thirdly, he maintains with noteworthy consistency the point of view once taken, and never loses sight of his main purpose—to bring together for continuous treatment all aspects of British and American history which concern the problem of colonial control and administration. In accomplishing his object he has made an exhaustive use of the Calendars of State Papers, Colonial, and has analyzed their contents with painstaking skill and understanding. Probably no previous writer has used these collections of invaluable material with the thoroughness that is here exhibited, and probably not a few of those already familiar with colonial history will be surprised to learn how much those volumes actually contain. Professor Osgood shows little familiarity with the original papers, but except in matters of detail it may be doubted whether a perusal of the complete documents would have altered essentially his conclusions.

The portions of this volume containing the most valuable contributions to our knowledge of colonial history are those relating to the British system. Not only is the presentation thoroughly original and sound, but it is also illuminating and creative. No discussion of the navigation acts has dealt so clearly with the commercial principle of the staple—that mercantilist device whereby all colonial exports and many colonial imports were forced to pass through the ports of England. And no one, so far as we know, has ever pointed out the influence of Virginia and the tobacco trade in giving shape to the doctrine of the enumerated commodities. Though a competent history of the navigation acts has yet to be written, Professor Osgood has not only made a very suggestive and enlightening contribution to the subject, but has also pointed out the direction that his successors must inevitably follow.

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This work marks an epoch in the writing of colonial history. Hereafter no writer, teacher, or student can ignore the plain lesson which it sets forth or allow himself to perpetuate the shallow particularistic conception of thirteen colonies practically independent of British control that has hitherto held sway. When the eighteenth century comes to be treated in like manner, the truth of Professor Osgood's contention will appear in a form still more emphatic; British control will assume a more orderly and unified form, and Burke's famous remark about "salutary neglect" will need as much modification as does the great orator's later comment upon the Board of Trade and the uselessness of its records. A larger colonial world is beginning to take form in the minds of modern scholars, much as three centuries ago it began to take form in the minds of English statesmen and mercantilists—a world, the centre of which was at Whitehall, where the Privy Council, the principal Secretaries of State, the Admiralty, Treasury, and other departmental boards had their seat, and where the Board of Trade sat in the "Cockpit" as the advisory and inquisitory agent of the crown, while the outlying members were the colonies from Nova Scotia to Barbadoes, nearly thirty in number, under a common administration, subject to common trade laws, customs system, and admiralty control, and guarded with a jealous and watchful eye. They were fostered because they contributed to the wealth of the kingdom, and protected because they furnished available strategic points in England's many struggles with the great maritime rivals of the Continent. The history of this larger world must be written before our thirteen colonies take their proper place in the progress of civilization. We are beginning to discover how substantial was the British system and how well ordained were the organs established for the execution of its purpose. When in the past the system has been discussed at all, the temptation has been to lay stress upon its weaknesses and its defects; the business of the future will be to show how much it actually accomplished. In the eighteenth century all the colonies but four were royal colonies, Governors' instructions were made more mandatory and inclusive, royal appointees spread like a network over the colonies, agents from every colony resided in England, and the system of supervision in matters that concerned the Plantations General reached a high point of completeness. When all the evidence is gathered and massed together, the system of British control will assume unexpected proportions, and will be found to be inextricably interwoven with the life and government of the colonists. Even in the seventeenth century we begin to feel that the revolutionary struggle to come was not between a people and a King, but between a people and a system—a far better ordered system than most of us have been inclined to believe. If this be true, the time will come when the causes of that revolution will undergo revision in the light, not only of new evidence, but also of a new and more thorough understanding of the problems involved. Perhaps Professor Osgood himself will undertake the larger task; if not, he may well be content with playing the part of a pioneer in thus opening up a phase of history little explored, and never systematically investigated.

CURRENT FICTION.

The Folk Afield. By Eden Phillpotts. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

This book is, to say the truth, a little disappointing to a reader who has fresh in mind the remarkable novel called "The Whirlwind," published but a few months ago. Here is a miscellany of short stories, in various moods and keys, but of no marked power. It seems to be the fate of English short-story writers just now to cultivate versatility at all costs. Of recent months one recalls, for example, volumes by Quiller-Couch, Maarten Maartens, and Vincent O'Sullivan. In every instance there is an air of continual experiment. Shall we write amusingly, or profoundly? Shall our next be a bit of genre, or a psychological studylet, or a yarn, or a *conte*? It is all the same to us, for it is our aim to have the whole business of fiction at our finger-tips. Will you take a bit of George Eliot, or Hardy, or Kipling, say, or Maupassant? It cannot be denied that this book by Mr. Phillpotts leaves a similar impression of tentativeness, of, let us not say insincerity, but insecurity. The "Foreword," to be sure, claims little for the tales. "These stories," it reads, "pretend to be no more than swift and slight impressions of those humble people who alone at any time or place concern my work." In a sense they are, he further intimates, notes on travel which, from inveterate habit, he is led to cast in the form of fiction. Italy, Algiers, Egypt, the West Indies, France, Syria, the high seas—so varied is the setting of his narratives. They are fairly good stories, and not more than that—for a Phillpotts. One of them, "Pierrotin from Paris," is worth all the rest—extremely good, even for a Phillpotts. But it is not sufficient to persuade us that the short-story form is that from which this writer should expect the best result, or to which he should devote much energy. One novel like "The Whirlwind" is worth (if not, alas, in a commercial sense) a thousand tidbits such as he here lets fall from his table.

Money Magic. By Hamlin Garland. New York: Harper & Brothers.

Mr. Garland has covered much ground since we welcomed "Main Travelled Roads," as a promise of the crude sincerity to be hoped for in the New Western fiction. Unfortunately, however, his subsequent development has been entirely towards conventionality, without a corresponding gain in finish of manner or thought.

Bertha Gilman, Colorado "biscuit-shooter," consents to marry an elderly gambler on condition of his closing the gaming houses and living upon some mines which turn out a fabulous fortune yearly. This man, Haney, meets with a grave injury in the usual brawl, and there is a hasty marriage so that the young woman may inherit. Haney, however, recovers and (except on one occasion) proves himself a model American husband, with no wish in life but that his wife shall spend money on amusement and personal ornament Naturally the girl-wife (in spite of her experience as waitress in a restaurant) is in that condition so prevalent among young ladies in fiction, a condition popularly known as "unawakened." Equally as a matter of course, her awakening comes about through the agency of a handsome young man. Her husband considerately plans suicide, but even this crumpled rose leaf is removed from under her. While climbing a high hill, to carry out his intention, he dies of heart failure; his potion of strychnine was not needed so that for Bertha and for the world in general "self-murder was never written opposite the name of Marshall Haney."

An interesting point might have been made of the way in which Bertha immediately learns all about clothes, to a point that satisfies Chicago society, both fashionable and artistic, while her diction to the last remains that of the free, untrammelled quick lunch counter.

The Romance of an Old-Fashioned Gentleman. By F. Hopkinson Smith. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

Adam Gregg, artist, is summoned to Maryland to paint old Judge Colton's young peach-blossom wife. Improvising a studio in the attic, Gregg poses the lady against a background of flowers, and the picture ends by realizing his highest hopes. Judge Colton has been away for a month and the finished portrait is to surprise him on his return. Unfortunately, the low-necked dress scandalizes the old gentleman, and he makes some nasty remarks. Even the fact that his own mother had actually worn the offending garment does not appease him. Adam and Olivia have one sad talk together, and Adam rides honorably away. After that, metropolitan successes crowd upon him. Honorably, he refrains from making any inquiries about the Coltons. Hearing by accident of the judge's death (many years after), he hurries to Maryland, only to find a burned house and a vague rumor of Mrs. Colton's being "daid." The picture, however, masquerading as a Gilbert Stuart, turns up in New York, and through it he establishes intimacy with Philip Colton (Olivia's son), now a rising young business man. Philip has become so acclimated in New York that he is making a fortune by holding his tongue as to the real amount of copper in a certain mine. Shamed by the sight of his mother's face, and by Gregg's denunciations, he tells the truth, fails disastrously, and is severed from his betrothed. Within a few days he is made head of a bond department at a salary of $10,000 a year, and marries his Madeleine. Before long a little blue-eyed, golden-haired Olivia is old enough to be lifted up and to place flowers before Olivia's picture, which never leaves its place over the mantel in Gregg's studio.

This story is almost sure to please those who enjoyed "The Lonely Lady of Grosvenor Square."

A Fountain Sealed. By Anne Douglas Sedgwick. New York: The Century Co.

The novel of adventure is not necessarily one of physical movement. There are books where the adventure is intricate and incessant, yet chiefly concerned with the emotions; with the shadowy doings of introspection, criticism, self-consciousness, thought-transference; where looks do battle, attitudes announce discoveries, and eyes talk metaphysics. The plain citizen, the clamorer for a simple story, will not take kindly to "A Fountain Sealed." On the other hand, the reader who is attracted by the

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subtle in style and substance, who likes a maximum of soul-searching with a minimum of "scene," will find it a mine of interest, and will have the further satisfaction of perceiving that a novel may deal with the subtleties, yet be unquestionably clean. There is a story, and an absorbing one, but it relates chiefly to states of mind. The opposing forces are led by the lofty, spiritually-assured Imogen and by the buoyant charmer, the comfort-bringing Valerie. The chronicle is of them and their respective adherents, their encounters, their contentions, their exchange of prisoners and partisans; and their final retirement into their appointed destinies—nominal victory for one camp, for the other nominal defeat.

Side by side with the ultra refinement of treatment; with the abstinences, discretions, and withdrawals, there lies in parts of the character-drawing a perilous likeness to caricature. More especially is this true of Imogen, whose self-righteousness reduces her at times to the absurd; and of the Pottses, man and wife, who sit Chadbandishly in the surrounding preciosity. It seems open to question whether an uncomplex, inarticulate Englishman would become interested in having the over-soul expounded to him by even the most beautiful of Americans, but that is only a detail in a whole which concerns itself with the events of the emotions. One of the most admirably drawn characters is the ghost of Mr. Upton, who has just died when the book opens. His pompous mediocrity, indeed, is the pivot of the entire action. An idolized memory, he sits above exaggeration: A bore, fathomed but buried, he passes beyond the chances of unreal detail into the region of entire credibility. If affairs are unlikely, they are at least vivid. If the characters are not always real persons, they are amazingly real pictures. Imogen is in the main consistent if improbable, and perhaps, after all, she is no more grotesque than an absolute egoist always must be. The summarized Valerie of the ante-novel period is not quite easy to reconcile with the tactful Valerie of our history; with the Valerie whose detractor accuses her of "a smile that claimed nothing yet that chained men"; of "a vague, sweet silence, that judged nothing, yet softly blighted, through its own indifference, all other people's enthusiasms." The pages themselves must be read to show how the little touches pile themselves up into a substantial structure of import and dignity.

Sundry carelessnesses speckle a generally elaborate manner. Mary is Mary Colton in the first chapter, but Mary Osborne in the eighth, though neither married nor changed at birth. In one place the word "competent" seems to have taken possession of the pen, and we have on one page, "competent reticence," "feverish competence," a "cool and competent" lover. Imogen, Botticelli Madonna-like, in person, has long, narrow hands with square finger-tips, at one time; at another her lover gazes admiringly on her hand with its pointed, up-turned finger-tips.

Laid up in Lavender. By Stanley J. Weyman. New York: Longmans, Green & Co.

If the twelve stories in this volume are only newly taken down from a fragrant shelf, as the title suggests, and as internal evidence hints, they are none the less fresh and neatly pointed. Each one has its pivot of clever invention and its deft wording. Some of them familiarly suggest the famous teller of tales of intricate adventure; others turn for interest on the mysteries inherent in old English abodes; others yet are of humorous episodes with amusing and kindly portraits of the English types that Trollope and *Punch* have brought home to the American heart, but in situations that it has been left to a Weyman to devise. Each has its motive and its surprise, prepared with nicety and approached with a craftsman's pen. The variety of provender supplied in the group makes a wholesome and digestible banquet from nourishing soup, through seasoned entrée to contenting coffee.

Letters from The Raven. With Introduction and Critical Comment by the Editor, Milton Bronner. New York: Brentano's. $1.50.

One's first thought is that these letters of Lafcadio Hearn ought to have been included in the general collection published by Mrs. Bisland last year, yet perhaps there is an advantage in having them by themselves in this little book. Their flavor gains a certain pungency by this isolation from his general correspondence.

When Hearn came to Cincinnati at the age of nineteen he was introduced to a printer named Henry Watkin, an Englishman of little formal education but of some taste for the exotic in literature, and the two exiles became intimate. Mr. Watkin was soon the "Old Man" or "Dad," while the boy, "by virtue of his dark hair and coloring, the gloomy cast of his thoughts, and his deep love for Poe," became "The Raven." Hearn had a trick of dropping in at the printing shop at any hour of the day or night, and of leaving cryptic notes for the "Old Man," signed with the picture of a saucy or dejected raven as the case might be. "These chambers are cursed with the Curse of Silence. And the night, which is the Shadow of God, waneth," wrote the young disciple of Poe on one of these occasions. There is a good deal of interest in these notes and in the letters which later Hearn wrote to Mr. Watkin from Memphis and New Orleans. They show his early *Wanderlust:* "My heart," he says, "always feels like a bird, fluttering impatiently for the migrating season." They are filled with bits of weird description such as this of his lodging while delayed at Memphis on his way to New Orleans:

> My room is carpetless and much larger than your office. Old blocked-up stairways come up here and there through the floor or down through the ceiling; and they suddenly disappear. There is a great red daub on one wall, as though made by a bloody hand when somebody was staggering down the stairway. There are only a few panes of glass in the windows. I am the first tenant of the room for fifteen years. Spiders are busy spinning their dusty tapestries in every corner, and between the banisters of the old stairways. The planks of the floor are sprung, and when I walk along the room at night it sounds as though Something or Somebody was following me in the dark.

From New Orleans we get vignettes of his strange Creole life, as we already know it, and new hints of odd occupations, such as the attempt to conduct a five-cent restaurant. The correspondence lags toward the end, with only four notes in all from Japan. These, however, have a certain importance, in so far as they confirm the impression that Hearn, before his death, was growing impatient of Japanese life, and still felt the throbbing *Wanderlust*.

Even more remarkable than the Watkin letters is a group of notes written in Cincinnati to an *inconnue*. Hearn, at this time in his twenty-sixth year, was a reporter on Murat Halstead's *Commercial;* the lady, whose name is not revealed, was apparently of some social position. Evidently she became fascinated by the exotic young writer and sought his confidence, if not a rather highly-colored platonic friendship. Her letters are lost, but Hearn's, which she returned to the writer, were given by him to Mr. Watkin, with the command to do with them as he thought best. They do not lend themselves easily to quotation, but they give glimpses into a curious relationship. "You have acted throughout, or nearly so, upon sudden impulse, which was injudicious," he writes after some misunderstanding; "and when you found me acting in the opposite extreme, the necessary lack of sympathy in our actions prompted you to believe that I was 'heartless.'" At another time he is saying: "I feel generally very reluctant to unbosom myself on paper, not knowing who might behold the exposition, and sneer at it, without being capable of understanding it." There is a tantalizing restraint in all that he writes to her, which would, perhaps, be better understood if we possessed the other half of the correspondence.

Deutsch in Amerika. Von Prof. Karl Knortz. New York: G. E. Stechert & Co.

Some readers may throw Professor Knortz's book aside in disgust on turning the introductory pages (which are clearly intended for a public in Germany) and before discovering that much of the work is timely and meritorious. That the title is ambiguous is not the only stumbling block; the purpose of the Introduction seems to be to stir up the smouldering embers of misunderstanding by pretending that all Americans distrust Germans, to collect all the fire-flies of dislike that together they may appear a dangerous flame. The Pennsylvanians of Penn's time and their anxiety lest Pennsylvania should become a German colony are cited as an old example of American antipathy, and we are charged with being envious and concerned with keeping Germans altogether out of the country. Dewey's victory is belittled, not so much for the purpose of presenting it in its true historical light, as for fanning anew the breeze about the Germans at Manila. John Hay is branded *ein echter Jingo* and *Anglomane*. The spirit of such writing is mischievous in the extreme, and intellectually and morally not a whit above page after page of bitter and unjust invective against America such as one may find in German journals for the last half century. That which makes the act more reprehensible is the status of Karl Knortz as a resident of America and student of American affairs, the translator of Longfellow and compiler of German and American literature.

Yet, as already stated, the book has much to commend it. Professor Knortz is con-

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vinced that Deutschtum in America is on the wane, and devotes his energies to discovering, if possible, the causes of the retrogression. Numbers of Germans in America never had the best of schooling while in Germany, or else were drilled in a study of Old Testament worthies, rather than of German poets, musicians, and artists; and finding that they had no need of these higher things to "make money" here, have settled down to German-American materialism. These men are never moved by spells of homesickness for the Fatherland, and the old-time emigrant sung by Freiligrath is a thing of the past. The thrifty German soon becomes a "four-story-house-owner," notes that the local newspaper prints items about his health and that of his family as the home paper in Germany used to do about the all-mighty prince; and, like Lenau, he soon loses his love for the country of his birth.

Not the least interesting of the themes discussed by Professor Knortz is the use of the German language in America, its chance of survival, and, incidentally, the acquirement of English by the immigrant, or rather his failure to acquire it, and the reason why. Knortz attributes much of the German's shyness to the disposition of American children and elders to laugh at "broken English," and he intimates that this is particularly an American vice; yet any one who has lived or travelled widely abroad will know that all peoples are prone to titter or roar at the slips of a foreigner in speech. When Professor Knortz, however, says that the average American boy or girl underestimates the difficulty of mastering a foreign tongue, delays beginning, tackles it superficially and usually throws it aside in disgust, he is right: we are still a nation of dilettantes in the acquisition of tongues, and undoubtedly prone to withhold from others due credit for mastering our own speech. Professor Knortz is also right when he reviews the withdrawal of German from the majority of grammar schools outside of Ohio, Wisconsin, and Indiana—forgetting, however, the good work in German in the Baltimore schools. He is right, too, in criticising severely the policy of sending out to grammar and high schools teachers so little prepared to instruct in German that they know nothing, or almost nothing, of German life and literature. But when Professor Knortz demands that such teachers should be able to speak *ein fehlerfreies Deutsch* he goes too far—not, of course, in respect to the ideal, but in consideration of what one actually meets with the world over. *Das Sprechen ist etwas an und für sich:* every student of long residence in Germany can count upon the fingers of one hand the *berühmte Gelehrter* in the field of English who can talk our mother tongue like a native. The average *Doktor phil.* who has become *Lehrer* in a *Gymnasium* or *Realschule* and is stocked with Beowulf and Chaucer, bombards you with a *schauderhaftes* English; and one has only to run through contributions by German teachers of *Englisch* to their half century of *Programms* to find the most astounding errors as to content and idiom—errors that might easily have been avoided if the writer had submitted his manuscript before publication to some resident American or Englishman. Archaic Latinized words experience renaissance, and William Gilmore Simms is given a chapter as lengthy as that accorded to Longfellow or Emerson. Professor Knortz praises the steadily-growing facilities for the study of German in the higher institutions of America, and thinks that it is easily driving Latin and French from the field.

German Vereins in America also come in for a review and a dressing down at the hands of the German-American professor. Some are all very well, but the most awful are the so-called *literarische Vereine,* such as that at Belleville, Mo., which recently gave, instead of sweetmeats from Jean Paul or plums from Goethe—"*eine grosse* euchre party." One thing is evident, and as commendable as it is unique and interesting, and that is that Professor Knortz deprecates the excessive drinking of beer at the gathering of his tribesmen. In conclusion, Professor Knortz cites as evidence of the retrogression of the Germans in America the facts that German-American newspapers are disappearing, German-Americans journals and books are published less and less, German bookstores are failing here, and German theatres closing up. He says that beyond doubt the growth of the German language in America depends on the immigration of Germans, who, however, are coming in fewer numbers to our shores. To counteract this falling off in interest and loyalty to German things, Knortz advises the further establishment of German kindergartens, the erection of monuments to distinguished Germans in our public parks, the presentation to schoolchildren of easily understood German heroic and historical plays, the giving of free lectures on the history of the Germans in America, active participation in politics without blind party allegiance, the yearly distribution of instructive books to those learning German in the upper classes of public schools, the dissemination of German literature, and the support of the German press and theatre. He would have also genuine accomplishment in professional life, showing the Yankee at all times what a German can really do.

Lectures on Humanism: With Special Reference to its Bearings on Sociology. By J. S. Mackenzie. New York: The Macmillan Co. $1.25 net.

The title of these nine lectures delivered at Oxford will probably mislead the reader of contemporary philosophy. Professor Mackenzie does not use the term humanism as the equivalent of pragmatism, and the subject of his book differs widely from that discussed by Prof. F. C. S. Schiller, for example, in his two volumes which bear similar titles. It is humanism in the older and correcter sense that is here considered:

What I understand by humanism may be most simply described as a point of view from which human life is regarded as an independent centre of interest, if not even as containing within itself the key to all other interests, or as being, in old Greek phraseology, the "helm" by which the universe is steered.

The theory is the opposite not of intellectualism, but of naturalism in the realm of science, and of supernaturalism in the realm of religion. The author sets forth his opinions with constant reference to the history of philosophy. He finds that the naturalism of the early Greek philosophy gave place to the humanism of the Sophists and of Socrates. He traces the rise of humanism during the Renaissance, but holds that it found no adequate expression until the time of Kant and Hegel, regarding the system of the latter as "an almost complete humanism," but overestimating the naturalistic element in the Critical Philosophy. He says that Kant's doctrine that things in themselves are unknown "fatally limited" his humanism; whereas we should say that Kant by this doctrine virtually abandoned a naturalistic position, and made his system necessarily humanistic; for the "things-in-themselves" are for him nothing but the negative limits of knowledge. Indeed it seems more reasonable to regard Hegel's "humanism" as "fatally limited" by his theory of an Absolute developed as Nature.

Throughout these lectures the opposition is emphasized between the quantitative, mechanical view of nature which is prevalent in modern science, and the qualitative and teleological view which Professor Mackenzie regards as the true philosophy. The man engaged in the investigation of nature may possibly leave out of view qualitative differences in his ultimate conceptions of the universe; but the philosopher approaching truth by the inner path must necessarily assert the reality of purpose and will in the constitution of the world of which he is a part. The philosophical position is therefore ethical rather than mechanical.

When we say that we set ourselves to achieve an end or carry out a purpose, what happens is: (1) that something presents itself to us as a good; (2) that we "identify ourselves" with this end, *i. e.*, that it fits into the general system of our conception of good on the whole; (3) that, as a result of this, certain organic adjustments begin to take place. These organic adjustments, so far as they are simply physical facts, take place in accordance with the general laws of material phenomena, *i. e.*, there is transference of motion, but no real creation or loss. The end or purpose—the recognition of something as for us a good—would seem here to be the real explanation of the change that takes place; and it may be doubted whether we have any real reason in the end to look for any other kind of explanation.

While in the earlier part of the book the discussions are somewhat abstract and sometimes obscure, even those not metaphysically trained can read with perfect understanding, lectures iv-ix., which deal with the applications of these teleological principles to politics, economics, education, and religion. The author everywhere illustrates his principles so that there is no obscurity in his teaching. Here, for example, is an interesting exposition of humanism in relation to politics. After showing that the old Greek city-state seemed to have a far more humanistic character than our modern political types do, he adds:

Perhaps the most hopeful case for such a purpose in our modern world would be such a nationality as Japan, with its intense unity and enthusiastic aims, based on what may be described as a social and political religion. If we are to treat European nationalities in a similar fashion, it would almost be necessary to regard them as a single unity for this purpose. And indeed it is almost natural for the modern sociologist to regard the whole world . . . as the unity within which the developing life of man is to be regarded as becoming realized.

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In the lecture on Humanism in Education, there is a discussion of the relative value of scientific and humanistic studies which is of some pedagogic interest, although it is original and ingenious rather than convincing. He concludes that even from a utilitarian point of view, the humanities are as valuable as the natural sciences. In a book of less than two hundred and fifty pages, it is of course impossible to treat adequately the great problems which Professor Mackenzie has raised; but he has at least succeeded in talking in an agreeable and interesting way about them. The inadequacy is most apparent in the lecture on Humanism in Religion, where the condensation of statement tends to obscure the author's distinction between humanism and supernaturalism.

The Virgin Birth of Christ. By James Orr. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50 net.

The Birth and Infancy of Jesus Christ, According to the Gospel Narratives. By the Rev. Louis Matthews Sweet; with an Introduction by James Stevenson Riggs. Philadelphia: The Westminster Press. $1.50 net.

The Incarnation and Recent Criticism. By the Rev. R. J. Cooke. New York: Eaton & Mains. $1.50 net.

In his recent "Problem of the Old Testament" Professor Orr of the United Free Church College, Glasgow, presented the ablest defence of the conservative position in Old Testament criticism that has appeared in many years, and his present volume on the Virgin Birth is likewise as skilful and valiant an apology for the traditional view on that subject as is likely to be written. Dr. Orr is a past master in argument. He keeps the main point at all times clearly in mind, marshals his facts in effective order, is shrewd in the discernment of an opponent's weak points, understands how to make his adversaries appear to refute each other, and, above all, lends to the weight of his reasoning the force of sincere and positive religious conviction. The present volume adds nothing new on the subject, or at least nothing of great importance, but as a popular presentation of the arguments on the conservative side it will not easily be surpassed.

His attitude, however, is that of a doughty defender of the faith, a polemic theologian, not of an historical critic or a seeker after light. He sees that an important doctrine of the faith is "assailed," and speaks constantly of "hostile critics," who are "attacking" the citadel of faith. He springs courageously to the rescue, and is resolved to maintain the fortress at all costs. Such an attitude scarcely admits of full justice to the critical difficulties in the way of acceptance of the Virgin Birth, and in fact neither the discrepancies in the narratives, the silence of large portions of the New Testament, nor the views of Christ's dignity, which apparently had a different basis, appear in Dr. Orr's pages in their full force. He cannot perceive the slightest legendary tinge in the early chapters of Matthew and Luke, or the smallest inconsistency in the genealogy of Jesus being traced through Joseph. He rejoices in the discrepancies between the two accounts of the birth, and speaks of their "deep and beautiful harmony." He is totally unmindful of the capacity of Biblical writers for accepting diverse and opposite traditions, and reasons that the assertion of descent through Joseph cannot disprove birth through the Virgin, since Matthew and Luke did not so regard it. His apology, therefore, while it will unquestionably "fortify the doctrinal conscience" of those who are already orthodox, and of those who are merely disquieted because a favorite dogma has been impugned, cannot be expected to carry conviction to the large number who have rejected the tradition because of their feeling for the legendary character of the narratives on which it is based. To these Dr. Orr's only comfort is that the doctrine is in the manuscripts, of which there are copies by the hundreds.

The attempt to make Paul sponsor for the Virgin Birth must be pronounced far-fetched. It is based on Galatians iv, 4: "God sent forth His Son, born of a woman, born under the law." The phrase "born of a woman" means simply human birth, as may be seen from Matthew xi. 11: "Among them that are born of women there hath not arisen a greater than John the Baptist" (cf. Job xvi. 1). But Dr. Orr observes that whereas Matthew uses γεννητός (*sic*, for γενητός), the ordinary word for "born," Paul employs γενόμενος, "becoming," and in the choice of this word Dr. Orr finds a veiled reference to the Virgin Birth. But the fact is that γενόμενος is altogether too common an expression for simple birth to allow of the slightest doctrinal or unusual connotation. John vii. 58 reads: πρὶν Ἀβραὰμ γενέσθαι. Would Dr. Orr assert the miraculous conception of Abraham?

In one respect, however, Dr. Orr has performed a real service, and that is in pointing out that the Virgin Birth has large doctrinal significance. It has been much the fashion of late to assert that the question was quite unimportant and without bearing upon the doctrinal structure of Christianity. Similarly it was said, when the higher criticism of the Old Testament began first to make its way, that the religious use and value of the writings were not affected. Nevertheless the Old Testament is not the book it was in the Puritan days, and it is well for piety and for the world that it is not. Likewise the views of the person of Christ are destined to undergo great change if the narratives of the infancy are pronounced legend rather than history, and thoroughgoing polemists like Dr. Orr do well to exhibit the doctrinal consequences of a change of view.

Mr. Sweet is less fortunate than Dr. Orr in the arrangement of his work, and goes into the subject in far greater detail. He devotes careful attention to each of the theories which have been advanced to account for the infancy narratives, pronounces them all unsatisfactory, and defends in general the conservative position. His critical skill and appreciation are not sufficient to allow him to do full justice to his theme, this being especially noticeable in his treatment of Old Testament passages.

The virgin birth also looms largely in Dr. Cooke's tractate on "The Incarnation and Recent Criticism." He sees disastrous consequences in the translation and popularization of the writings of such scholars as Harnack, Pfleiderer, Lobstein, and Réville, declares them "old foes with new faces," and refutes their opinions *in toto* and *currente calamo*.

Les Filigranes: Dictionnaire historique des marques du papier dès leur apparition vers 1282 jusqu'en 1600. Par C.-M. Briquet. 39 figures dans le texte: 16,112 facsimilés de filigranes; 836 pages, 4 vols. Genève: Jullien.

This scholarly book will fill with gratitude the hearts of all those whose studies centre about the Middle Ages. The author is a descendant of one of those Huguenots who left France a few centuries ago and did honor to their native country wherever they chose to take their new abodes—in England, in Germany, in Switzerland, in Holland, even in America. For seven generations, members of his family have been conducting business in some branch or other of what they call in France by the general name *l'industrie du livre*. But they did not regard theirs as a mere money-making trade: they have felt for the wares they were handling, books, paper, binding, types, ex-libris, etc., a sort of affection which business men of the modern type could hardly understand. The book now before us is an outcome of this genuine fondness for all matters connected with books. It deals with an almost completely unexplored field of knowledge, *filigranes*, or water-marks. They are made by a copper-wire, shaped in some determined fashion, and pressed on the moist paper pulp.

These trade-marks—for they are nothing else—have been in use ever since the thirteenth century. The fascinating stories that they can tell, few would suspect who have not looked through the four volumes filled with thousands of facsimiles, and have not read the explanations of the compiler. Indeed, the *filigranes* explain some of the mysterious names by which stationers still call certain papers: Crown, foolscap, elephant, post (postman's horn); or in France, papier petit-Jésus, gros-vilain, pigeonne, petit-larron, demoiselle, etc. Often the *filigranes* have disappeared long ago; but stationers continue to call by the same name any paper having the same form or size or color.

It took M. Briquet twenty-five years to complete his collection. He visited all the important libraries, archives, and book collections of France (France was up to the eighteenth century providing paper for all Europe), of Germany, Austria, Switzerland, Belgium, and Holland. He has examined 30,840 volumes and pamphlets, 1,432 portfolios, files, and bundles of documents, and he has taken altogether some 44,000 tracings of *filigranes*. If any one feels that a study of *filigranes* can be nothing more than an innocent mania, like collecting spoons, he need only read the interesting Introduction to see how wonderfully helpful this work can be. A more accurate, and, whenever available, more rapid means of investigation, historians, archæologists, and students of mediæval literature have never known. Often scholars brimming with erudition, and armed to the teeth with philological and linguistic methods, simply cannot ascertain definitely the date of some important document—a date which will throw light on a score of other problems. But, as M. Briquet has classified his material in

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the form of a dictionary, an investigator, who can find a *filigrane* in the document can learn from this work by M. Briquet when the *filigrane* began to be used, when it was discontinued, where it was used, by whom. The value of the method has just been tested in Switzerland, by Ad. Fluri. A document of importance, the Chronicle of Justinger, has come down to us in several manuscripts, containing at times widely different readings. For years archivists and paleographs had been vainly discussing the question of the earliest copy. Thanks to the *filigrane*, the problem has been at once definitely settled. Thus Briquet's Dictionnaire will be indispensable in all libraries, in museums, and archives containing documents previous to the seventeenth century.

Queer Things About Persia. By Eustache De Lorey and Douglas Sladen. Fifty-two full-page illustrations. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.50 net.

Life in Teheran, as Seen by an Attaché, would be an apter title for this book than that given it by the authors. For it is the simple, but entertaining, record of the experiences and impressions gained during two years' residence in the Persian capital by a young member of the French Legation. M. de Lorey describes his house, his servants, street scenes, bazaars, a dinner at the palace of the Grand Vizier, a reception by the late Shah, and a religious play, "Kassem's Marriage," a veritable Mohammedan Oberammergau. A realization of the strange mixture of the West and the "immovable" East may be had from his account of the return of the Shah from a hunting trip.

First came the *ferrashes*, carrying whips, and the *shaters*, or runners, in velvet helmets plumed with peacocks' feathers; then came the *Nasakdji Bashi*, or chief executioner, dressed in blood-red, and the *fellekeh* of the bastinadoes, drawn by richly caparisoned mules. All this medley of gay colors, all this pomp of functionaries and soldiers, was surrounding a chariot too strange for the magnificent sovereigns of Iran even to have dreamt of it—*the motor-car of Muzaffer-ed-din Shah.*

Much interesting and valuable information is given in regard to marriage and divorce, and the position of woman, the material relating to the Shah's harem having been obtained from one of its doctors who "lifted for me the corner of the jealous veil which envelopes this feminine city." Brief references are made to the system of government and mal-administration of justice, but there are no references to Persia's relations to the great Powers, or to the reform movement now in progress. Some incidents of a journey in Kurdistan, narrated in the closing chapter, show the normally disturbed conditions on the Turkish frontier.

Douglas Sladen's part in the preparation of the book is best described in his own words. When M. de Lorey had arranged his notes on any subject, "he dictated and I wrote down the chapter, and this time it was I who made the suggestions"; and he adds that their aim was to "present Persia as it presented itself to the eyes of one, who, in the earliest years of manhood, was thrown by the chances of diplomatic life into daily contact with an ancient and effete civilization, which was generally most comic when it was meant to be serious." The numerous pictures, especially those illustrating Persian architecture and gardens, add much to the attractiveness of the volume.

Science.

European Animals. By R. F. Scharff. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.50 net.

Those who were present at the recent Seventh International Zoölogical Congress in Boston, and were fortunate enough to hear Dr. Scharff's most interesting address on the Geographical Distribution of Animals, will welcome this volume as embodying in full the results of his work. Since the day of Wallace's classics on this subject a number of other works have appeared, notably Richard Lydekker's "Geographical History of Mammals"; but for thoroughness and for general scientific worth in its restricted geographical field, Dr. Scharff's volume will long remain unequalled. It is based on a course of the Swiney Lectures, and hence is as readable and as interesting to the layman as to the scientist. Conservatism marks most of the work, and yet the author advances many new suggestions and generalizations, which he supports by proofs so excellent that few of them can be refuted.

In an introductory chapter, Dr. Scharff discusses geographical history and distribution, and the relation between the two. After a brief review of theories as to the means of dispersal of animals and plants, he says, "We may regard it, therefore, as an established fact that accidental dispersal of a species is the exception, while slow progress on land for terrestrial animals is the rule." In regard to the disputed question of whether the glacial period did or did not exterminate all life in western Europe, the author takes the negative side, treating "that important event in our geological history as a negligible quantity." His theory of the original home of an animal is that it is "somewhere near the centre of its geographical range."

Having thus outlined the broader phases of his subject, he takes up in the remaining ten chapters, various regions of Europe: a chapter each to the British Isles, the Spanish Peninsula, Scandinavia, the Alps, etc. Beginning with Ireland he describes some of the most characteristic animals—and, in spite of his title, the plants—and by tracing them to their original homes, he, little by little, reveals the past geological changes which have affected that island. The fresh water herrings now living in lakes of Ireland, Scotland, and England, not far from the Irish Sea, hark back to a time when these countries were much more elevated, and separated only by a large fresh water lake, instead of the present sea. On the other hand, the Englishman finds in Ireland none of the moles, voles, snakes, unios, and many insects with which he is familiar at home. The former land connection of Ireland with Spain and Portugal is clearly indicated by identical species of arbutus, heather, slugs, spiders, weevils, and dragon-flies. Another geograpical hint of importance is given by certain Irish fresh-water sponges and pearl mussels and the pipe-wort, all of which are found in North America. At the end of the chapter is a summary of the past and present relations of the Irish fauna and flora, with those of other regions, adjacent and remote. This treatment may be taken as typical of the other chapters. The whole forms a comprehensive and yet condensed review of our present-day knowledge of the geographical history and distribution of European life.

A novel as well as helpful feature of the volume is the character of the many illustrations. The majority consist of an outline map of Europe, with a blackened distribution area of some animal or plant, a photograph of which is placed in one corner. The value of such graphic illustration in place of tedious detailed statements of distribution, involving often an intimate knowledge of countries unfamiliar to most readers, is very great. Students will welcome the appendix giving a list of over two hundred works and papers consulted in the preparation of the volume.

"Along the Labrador Coast," by Dr. C. W. Townsend. (Boston: Dana Estes & Co.) is an excellent illustration of what may be accomplished in a short vacation. From July 10 to August 3, 1906, the author skirted the Labrador coast or explored the vicinity of the fishing villages. Even when the mail-boat went ashore for only a half-hour he made a note or two of the birds or trees or human inhabitants. Concerning one of the trees stunted by the cold and storms of this bleak land he writes:

A black spruce eleven inches tall and twenty-two in extent, with a trunk only one inch in diameter, had lived over half a century, showing fifty-two rings in its cross section. The sturdy little veteran wreaked his vengeance on me by making a great nick in the sheath knife with which I labored to dissect him and learn his secrets.

Many of the author's facts are valuable contributions to our knowledge of the fauna and flora of Labrador. The simple narrative makes enjoyable reading and admirably supplements the more technical "Birds of Labrador," which Dr. Townsend has published as No. 7, vol. XXXIII, of the Proceedings of the Boston Society of Natural History. While travelling primarily as an ornithologist, the author neglected nothing of interest—historical, botanical, or human. Besides the general account, there are chapters devoted to Fish and Fishermen, the Eskimo Dog, Capt. Cartright, the Need of an Audubon Society, and Dr. Greenfell and his Work. A map enables the reader to follow every step of the trip.

W. H. Dudley Le Souëf, author of "Wild Life in Australia" (Melbourne: Whitcombe & Tombs), is director of the Melbourne Zoological Gardens, and has thus had unexcelled opportunities to observe the fauna and flora of this island continent. He takes us from Victoria to New South Wales; thence to Bass Strait, to Queensland, and to western Australia, filling every page with a wealth of fact and anecdote. Those wonderful mimics, the lyre birds, the playgrounds of the bower birds, and the great mound nests of the brush turkeys, together with insects, flowers, native aborigines, and the terrible wille-wille storms which devastate parts of the country—all are described in almost breathless sequence. There are also many pictures. The chief criticism of the book is the heterogeneous

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way in which the subject matter is treated, there being no segregation of correlated facts or grouping of related classes. This defect is partly redeemed by two indices, one general, and the other giving the scientific names of all the animals and plants mentioned in the book. One of the most interesting passages relates to a great pit, or depression, in the centre of an island frequented by a large colony of nesting albatrosses. At the bottom of this pit the author found the bones of hundreds of the birds, and it proved to be a veritable death-trap. When an albatross came up wind, headed for its nest across the island, it sometimes swooped too low over the depression. The wind on which it was relying instantly failed it, and before the bird could recover it would strike against the steep side and tumble helplessly to the bottom, from which it was unable to rise and make its escape. This is the first popular book on Australian natural history which gives a vivid and yet wholly accurate account of the animated life of that strangest of all lands.

An important contribution to ornithology is a memoir just published by W. P. Pycraft on "Some Points in the Anatomy of the Emperor and Adélie Penguins"—part of the natural history report of the British National Antarctic Expedition. The fallacy of regarding the feathers of these birds as directly comparable with the scales of reptiles is discussed, and it is shown that, though scale-like, they are really degenerate feathers of true flight. This theory is also supported by examination of the less specialized wing bones of the embryos in which the thumb is separate and the shape of other bones hints of volant ancestors. The most important discovery is that two sets of down plumage in penguins precede the definitive feathers of the adult. The first is fine, silky, and hair-like; the second is longer and thicker, and very dense, like velvet. In some species this is three inches in length, a special adaptation against the severe cold of the Antarctic breeding places. Mr. Pycraft finds a direct correlation between these three plumages and those of nestling owls and some other birds. If his theories as to relationship with the nestling plumage of birds in general prove correct, we shall have radical changes to make in our heretofore accepted ideas of sequence of plumage from the embryo to the adult. Reviewing our knowledge of the penguin group as a whole, from the giant six-foot eocene types to the little jackass penguin of South Africa, he declares unreservedly that they are all descended from birds with full powers of flight. Finally, he regards the steganopodes as the common ancestral stock from which have descended the penguins, divers, and petrels on the one hand, and the storks, hawks, and duck-like birds on the other.

A new meteorological observatory is to be erected on Mount Marmolata, the highest point on the South Tyrolean Dolomites, and on the border between Tyrol and Italy. The structure is to be built next year under the auspices of the Società degli Alpinesti Tridentini, the largest and wealthiest scientific body in the Italian Tyrol. The Marmolata is 3,360 metres high and is excellently adapted for scientific observations and study.

Drama.

W. S. Gilbert. By Edith A. Browne. New York: John Lane Co. $1 net.

This biography of W. S. Gilbert, in the Stars of the Stage series, is not altogether destitute of sound critical appreciation, but is written too much in the style of the feminine newspaper interviewer to be quite worthy of its subject. It is interesting, however, in the details which it gives of the brilliant humorist's youth and up-bringing, his early literary and theatrical tendencies, his career at school and the London University, and his various disappointments in seeking distinction in the army, the law, and civil service. In these diverse pursuits he acquired the varied experience of life which he was to put to such admirable satirical purpose later on. The book is not at all an adequate review of Mr. Gilbert's abilities or achievements, especially as regards the more serious side of his work, but furnishes well selected samples of his lighter humor in liberal extracts from the "Bab Ballads," several of the poetic plays, and the famous operettas. These will act as incentives to younger readers, as yet unacquainted with his writings, to go to the parent source for further entertainment. Old admirers, of course, will get small satisfaction from them.

Miss Browne gives a pleasant account of the long and brilliant reign of Gilbert and Sullivan at the London Savoy, and of the artistic coöperation to which the representations owed their finish and effect. All that is an old story now. But it is worth while to quote Mr. Gilbert's own words concerning the spirit in which the enterprise was originally undertaken:

> We resolved that our plots, however ridiculous, should be coherent, that our dialogue should be void of offence, that, on artistic principles, no man should play a woman's part, and no woman a man's. Finally, we agreed that no lady of the company should be required to wear a dress that she could not wear with absolute propriety at a private fancy ball.

This resolution they kept, with results which all the world knows. A more scathing commentary on the decadent "comic opera" of to-day could scarcely be imagined. As an illustration of Miss Browne's critical faculty it may be said in conclusion that she puts Gilbert, the sanest of humorists, in the same category with Bernard Shaw and couples Henry Irving with Charles Wyndham.

The Macmillan Co. has reissued Richard G. Moulton's "Moral System of Shakespeare," published in 1903, under the new title of "Shakespeare as a Dramatic Thinker."

The Shakespeare Society of New York has planned a "Bankside Restoration Series," edited by Appleton Morgan and Willis Vickery, as a sequel to its "Bankside Shakespeare." The intention is to print on opposite pages Shakespeare's play and an adaptation of it by one of the playwrights of the later seventeenth century, so that a comparison may easily be made. The value of the scheme may be judged by the first volume just issued, under Mr. Vickery's immediate supervision, containing "Timon of Athens," from the first folio, and the adaptation by Thomas Shadwell (1678). A glance through the pages is sufficient to show that the method is much less fruitful than in the case of such folio and quarto versions as were compared in the "Bankside Shakespeare," for in Shadwell we have a remaking of the play so thorough that only occasionally is the dialogue of the two versions nearly enough identical to repay line for line comparison; and the rearrangement of scenes and introduction of new characters throw out the concurrence so often that in a large proportion of cases one of the contrasted pages is blank. This objection would hold against the scheme, even if it were well executed. But the workmanship of this initial volume is a disgrace to American scholarship. The General Preface and Introduction are negligible in substance and positively illiterate in style. Grammar, spelling, and proof-reading are alike wretched. For the texts themselves, they are clearly not to be relied upon. A collation of the first scene of Shakespeare's play with the First Folio, which it seeks to follow *literatim,* reveals some dozen errors. It is difficult to see what good purpose is served by such publications: it is easy to see how much harm is done.

A new edition of R. B. Sheridan's "Rivals" (Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.) makes an attractive volume, with its clear type, fine paper, ample margins, and copious illustrations, and is likely to be in demand as a gift book. Brander Matthews in an introduction furnishes a satisfactory but scarcely necessary refutation of long forgotten and altogether unimportant charges of plagiarism on the part of the author, who, if he, like many another genius, was not above taking an occasional hint from lesser writers, so improved upon the idea as to give it all the practical effect of originality. The pictures designed by M. Power O'Malley are fairly good in draughtsmanship and sufficiently ornamental, but do not possess any specially illuminative or dramatic quality. In facial expression and significance they offer but feeble reflections of the spirit of the text. The notes are of little value.

James MacArthur's dramatization of "The Pilgrim's Progress," which, under the name of "The Christian Pilgrim," was produced in the Liberty Theatre on Monday evening, is a fairly adroit piece of work, and in its rearrangement, sticks closely enough to the original dialogue, which lends itself readily to theatrical adaptation, to preserve the literary quality practically intact. On the whole the representation embodied the spirit of the original work more faithfully and sincerely than was, perhaps, generally expected. There was abundant evidence of a serious and artistic intent behind it, but, as might have been foreseen, the spiritual motive and purpose were least discernible whenever they became the excuse for the most elaborate spectacular illustration. In the scenes in "Vanity Fair" and in the enchanted retreat of the Wanton the interest was purely theatrical, not at all literary or moral. But during the episodes of the flight from the City of Destruction, Christian's passage of the Wicket Gate and winning of the Cross on the Hill, the arming in the House Beautiful and so on, the play was actual-

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ly an enactment of the allegory, and exercised the same sort of religious and emotional influence as was exerted by "Everyman." At no time did it degenerate into mere futility and mockery. Miss Crosman, Mr. Roger, and Mr. Mackay spoke the dialogue with comprehension and effect, but the elocution of many of the performers, notably that of the leading man, Tyrone Power, was exceedingly poor. In the case of Mr. Power, who assumed several leading characters, Beelzebub, Apollyon, Hategood, and Giant Despair, with but little sense of characterization, this defect was serious. To the general public the piece will appeal most strongly by its spectacular and musical features, which are uncommonly good in their way, but it is none the less deserving of consideration as an artistic effort.

Music.

Stories of Symphonic Music. By Lawrence Gilman. New York: Harper & Bros. $1.25 net.

Previous to Beethoven, symphonic music was little more than the melodious weaving of pretty tone patterns, without any emotional purport or pictorial suggestiveness. Beethoven deepened the emotional import and made a few attempts at pictorial delineation, the most famous of which is the Pastoral Symphony; in this he intends the music to illustrate successively the "awakening of joyful impressions on arriving in the country"; a "scene by the brook"; a "merry gathering of country folk"; "a thunderstorm"; and a "shepherd's song: glad and thankful feelings after the storm." It is true that after penning these indications of his realistic intentions, he had an access of repentance and wrote that his music was intended to be "more an expression of feeling than painting"; and this deprecatory afterthought caused pictorial or "programme music," as it is generally called, to be looked on by the conservatives for many decades as only semi-respectable. Nevertheless, the fact that Beethoven had actually written such music encouraged Mendelssohn to compose his "Scotch" and "Italian" symphonies, and his "Hebrides," "Melusina," and "Calm Sea" overtures, which made Wagner call him "a landscape painter of the first order", and after him the tide rose gradually until absolute (non-pictorial) orchestral music was swept away almost completely. Berlioz, Liszt, Raff, Spohr, and others were among the pioneers, and all the prominent composers excepting Brahms followed in their footsteps, at least in some of their works.

At the present day orchestral conductors seldom arrange a programme that does not contain some "programme" music; sometimes the "programme" is printed in the programme, but often it is not. In the latter case an injustice is done to the hearer as well as the composer, an injustice almost as great as that perpetrated by a vocalist who sings a song in such a way that the words cannot be understood; for, as Ernest Newman has aptly remarked: "If the poem or the picture was necessary to the composer's imagination, it is necessary to mine." There ought to be some way of compelling concert organizations to print the necessary information. Mr. Gilman's new book, "Stories of Symphonic Music," will save them the trouble of compiling the requisite information. To be sure, our author rather deprecates the "efforts of many persons in the audience to extract from programme notes and analyses information as to the dramatic or pictorial or poetic meaning of the music to which they are listening," on the grounds that there is no time for such effort during a concert, and that it is likely to distract the attention of the hearer from the music. There is something in that, too, and we cordially agree that the best thing for every concert-goer to do is to get a copy of Mr. Gilman's book and prepare himself beforehand.

It is a good book, up-to-date, like all of Mr. Gilman's writings. In fact, we fear it is, in not a few of its sections, rather too much up-to-date. The author is ultra-modern in his taste, and he includes in his pages not only symphonic works which are part of the standard repertory, but "such others as seem likely to become so." Among these is the first piece he describes, "The Witch of Atlas" (based on Shelley's poem), by Granville Bantock, an English composer quite neglected so far in our concert halls. Considerable space is given to other pieces now seldom or never heard at our concerts—works by Converse and Hadley, in particular. These are Americans, and so are three others (Chadwick, MacDowell, and Loeffler) in Mr. Gilman's list of thirty-four composers of programme music. Of Liszt's symphonic poems seven are described, while Wagner is represented by the "Faust Overture" and the "Siegfried Idyl." Huber's second symphony was perhaps worth including in this book as an endeavor to compose a tonal commentary on a famous painting; yet, in this, Huber's work was anticipated by Liszt's "Battle of the Huns," which was inspired by one of Kaulbach's frescoes representing the aerial battle between the ghosts of the slain Huns and Romans in the year 451.

American composers and students may find much in Mr. Gilman's volume of interest to them as marking the trend of modern music. We would call their attention particularly to the pages describing the four symphonic poems of Saint-Saëns. That Frenchman, better than any other writer of pictorial music, knew how to condense and present the programme for his music. His "Phaëton" is a model for all composers—a sketch which irresistibly invites a musical setting and makes it easy to follow:

> Phaëton has obtained leave to drive his father's, the Sun's, chariot through the heavens. But his unskilful hands lead the steeds astray. The flaming chariot, thrown out of its course, approaches the terrestrial regions. The whole universe is about to perish in flames, when Jupiter strikes the rash Phaëton with his thunderbolt.

What Mozart is among composers, Mme. Sembrich is among singers; her art is always pure, lovely, serene, and though a cloud may occasionally appear on the horizon, it is never a storm cloud. The nearest approach to dramatic emotion on her Tuesday afternoon programme at Carnegie Hall was Schubert's "Gretchen am Spinnrade," and the pathos of this was not fully revealed either by her or by her accompanist, Isidore Luckstone, who in all the other songs was admirable. Mme. Sembrich is at her best in songs of light calibre, and nearly all she sang were of this kind; those that had a dash of the comic pleased her large audience particularly. She is mistress of six languages, and sang in them all—Italian, German, French, English, Russian, Polish. Though she now occasionally needs the art of concealing art, she is still the greatest living representative of the *bel canto*, unless the tales regarding Mme. Tetrazzini cabled from London are true.

Jan Kubelik experiences no difficulty in playing any music ever written for the violin; the most stupendous feats seem child's play in his hands. Much more difficult is the rôle he has to play before the public and the musical experts. The public—as represented by an audience of over five thousand persons at the Hippodrome last Sunday—wants to see him exhibit dazzling fireworks *à la* Paganini, while the musicians sneer at him as a mere virtuoso if he gratifies this wish. The problem is how to get both the pay of the public and the praise of the critics. The programme attempted to solve this problem; it included the Sinding concerto; a Beethoven romanza, and the "Havanaise" of Saint-Saëns. In this music he showed that his art has ripened, that he can now play with expression as well as with skill. Yet he himself, like his audience, was much more at home in the final piece, Paganini's "Witches' Dance." In this, all the tricks of the trade are exemplified, and by his marvellous manipulation of them the juggler provoked the wildest enthusiasm.

Professor Kopfermann, head of the musical department of the Berlin Royal Library, has discovered Mozart's seventh Violin Concerto, which was hitherto believed to have been lost. Professor Kopfermann has edited the concerto, and it was performed for the first time on November 4 in Berlin.

Dr. Edmund Hart Turpin, who died in London on October 25, was one of the best known English concert organists and musical journalists. He had been for thirty-two years honorary secretary of the College of Organists. He was born in 1835, at Nottingham. In 1888 he was appointed to the post of organist of St. Bride's, Fleet Street, which he held to the last. He was for several years editor of the *Musical Standard*, and subsequently of the *Musical News*. As a lecturer he was also much in demand. His compositions are mostly of the ecclesiastic order (oratorios, masses, cantatas, anthems), but there are also secular works—piano pieces, quartets, and a "Monastery" symphony.

Vicomtesse Vigier, formerly Sophia Cruvelli, the famous prima donna, died at Nice November 6, aged eighty-one years. She created the leading rôles in Verdi's "Ernani" and "Attila."

Art.

THE WATER COLOR CLUB EXHIBITION.

The exhibitions of the New York Water Color Club are always smaller than those of the American Water Color Society, and it cannot be said that there is any special difference in the point of view represented by the two bodies. The strongest work in

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each exhibition is likely to be by the same men. The club includes in its present exhibition pastels which give a different shade to its walls, but the growing use of opaque colors renders it difficult, at times, to distinguish at a glance whether a given work is in pastel or in gouache. Perhaps the standard of this exhibition is a little lower than that of last year's Society showing, but there is good work in it, and certain new-comers are more conspicuous than they might have been in the larger exhibition.

There is, as always, the interest of seeing how the same men get far more beautiful color when they paint in water-colors than when they handle oils. To those who are in a position to know of experiments now being made, it is evident that the lesson is at last being taken to heart, and that painter after painter, who has been brought up in the superstition of "direct painting," and has floundered in mud or chalk for years, is beginning to understand that something is to be said for the traditional methods of oil painting. Painter after painter is beginning to see that there is a special beauty in transparent and translucent color, which is absent from opaque pigment. Unless signs fail the day is at hand when color, for its own intrinsic beauty, and workmanship, also, will reappear in the art of painting in oil.

Instances of the sort of thing oil painting has lacked, in our day, are to be found plentifully enough in almost any water-color exhibition. Take as an instance, here, Otto C. Wigand's, Early Spring, No. 237. Mr. Wigand is a painter in oils whose work is always to be seen in our exhibitions and makes a respectable, if not a distinguished, figure there. If he could give it such charm of color, such fullness and delicacy, at once, as he has achieved in this little watercolor, he would be recognized as one of our foremost painters. Or take Alethea Hill Platt's On the Edge of Dartmoor, No. 101; Mary Langtry's Warm Sunlight's Glow, No. 398 (a picture singularly misnamed, as it is a twilight scene), and the same artist's picture of a white duck absurdly entitled "And scurvy care is dead to such as we," No. 252—all three of these drawings have a decorative color quality—a quiet richness—of which few of our painters in oil, except Maxfield Parrish, who paints almost entirely with transparent color, are capable. These are far from the only examples of what I mean; examples are everywhere. There are bits of still life, flower pieces, all sorts of things by quite undistinguished persons which show the advantage of working in a medium in which stupid prejudice does not forbid the use of real color. It is only in the case of those who are going into the extreme use of pure gouache that watercolor painting is in danger of becoming as lifeless as is much of our modern painting in oils.

Many well-known artists are represented in the exhibition by characteristic works, like F. Luis Mora's brilliant Vacation Time, No. 339, awarded the Beal prize, which has all of his dash, if something less than his occasional subtlety, or Henry B. Snell's Rainbow, No. 363, in which the illusion of light in the bow itself is striking, but is gained at some sacrifice of the quiet beauty of the rest of the picture. On the whole, one likes better his less striking Gray Weather, No. 254. Genjiro Yeto, from painting Japanese subjects in an impressionistic manner, has taken to painting American flowers in a Japanese manner, and the result is delightful.

A systematic review of everything worthy of notice in the exhibition would require more time and space than are at my disposal. Let me conclude with a welcome to one or two new names. Charles Emile Heil is represented by four examples, all of which are interesting. Repose, No. 197, and Laborers Homeward Bound, No. 395, are based on strong charcoal drawings, full of character, washed over with transparent colors. If there is any such drawing under Nos. 73 and 117, Child and Turkeys and The Golden Gown, it is effectually hidden. Both have a curious, stencil-like technique, which is very effective in rendering the glitter of the feathers on the turkeys' backs and the embroidery on the gown. The flesh-modelling in No. 117 is hard, but there is a certain distinction in the drawing. In all four of Mr. Heil's pictures the flesh is rather brownish, and less successful than the accessories. On the whole, he seems to be a person with something to say and a personal way of looking at things, and his work has a decorative intention that is welcome. One will hope for more and still better things from him.

Finally, one of the best things in the exhibition is the Checkered Dress, No. 173, by Hilda Belcher, an entirely new name. It is delightful in tone, charming in characterization, well drawn, and unusually successful in the rendering of flesh—a difficult task in water-color. There is nothing here more quietly beautiful or which one would more strongly wish to carry away.

KENYON COX.

Lemcke & Buechner are the agents in this country for the new dictionary of artists, "Allgemeines Lexikon der bildenden Künstler von der Antike bis zur Gegenwart," edited by Dr. Ulrich Thieme and Dr. Felix Becker of Leipzig, with the cooperation of 300 specialists of Germany and other lands. This great work is to be completed in twenty large volumes, the first of which has just appeared ($8 net).

The most important contribution to the literature of art that the Metropolitan Museum of Fine Arts has made lately is a catalogue of the Morgan collection of Chinese porcelains. The tabulations are reprinted with additions from an earlier edition for private circulation which was printed by Robert Grier Cook in 1904. The new issue, which the museum publishes, contains an historical introduction by Dr. Stephen W. Bushell, a new preface by William M. Laffan, and a series of full-page halftones. In the preface Mr. Laffan says:

> The purpose of the present catalogue is to afford to those interested in the subject of Chinese porcelain an opportunity to study the objects exhibited in the Morgan collection in the light of the latest knowledge that is to be had on the subject. The collection is the most comprehensive that is known, and it has been described as succinctly and lucidly as appeared possible, without any technicalities that could be avoided.

Among the recent accessions in the Metropolitan Museum of Fine Arts are two collections of Egyptian antiquities, one of 187 pieces, which was acquired by purchase, and the other, of 29 pieces, secured under the Egyptian Research Account.

The excavations at Paestum, which have been carried on since last spring, have yielded some remarkable results. Paestum, the Greek Poseidonia, was founded about 600 B. C., probably by Troezenians who were driven out of the city of Sybaris by the Achæans. For a long time it was one of the most flourishing Greek cities, and it was not until the third century B.C. that it lost its independence and became subject to Rome. In our own times it is known chiefly for its three magnificent temples, the largest of which, the temple of Poseidon, dates back probably to about 500 B. C., and is one of the finest and best preserved examples of Greek Doric architecture. The fact that Paestum was for a long time an important Greek city, and had not yet been explored by modern archæologists, made excavations on that site especially alluring. Prof. Vittorio Spinazzola of the University of Naples obtained permission to investigate the site and in three short months brought to light a large quantity of most interesting remains. The first thing discovered was the great central road, thirty-six feet wide, composed of large polygonal blocks, with its paths still intact. It passed behind the two great temples, and has been uncovered for more than 405 feet. In the neighborhood of the temples many fragments of cornices and terra-cotta ornaments have been found; also large fragments of terra-cotta which form a frieze three yards long. These are adorned with five lion heads and beautiful designs of spirals and flowers, and are painted red and brown, the colors well preserved. It is probable that this frieze is part of the cornice that crowned the temple. About seventy-eight feet from the altar which stands in front of the later temple, commonly known by the name of the Basilica, were found a large number of objects dating from prehistoric times down to the Roman epoch: primitive weapons of the stone age; bracelets and ornaments of the bronze age; a rude idol in the form of a bearded god, with round eyes and archaic smile; archaic inscriptions and manifold remains of later times. Great expectations are entertained of the results of the excavations this coming winter.

It had been planned to celebrate the fiftieth anniversary of Rome as the capital of Italy in 1911 by a great international archæological exhibition in the Baths of Caracalla. For this purpose the Baths were to be elaborately reconstructed in cement and wood and given as much as possible their original appearance. This project, however, found many opponents, and it has now been proposed to spend the four million francs which it would take to reconstruct the Caracalla Baths on the complete clearing of the Baths of Diocletian. All the little houses which have been erected on the site should be pulled down and the old walls brought to light again. The large halls, which are still partly covered, should afford plenty of room for the archæological exhibition, and the same rooms could later be used to house some of the collections which have been crowded into the Museo delle Terme.

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In the *Notizie degli scavi* L. Pernier gives an interesting account of important Etruscan finds which have recently been made in the neighborhood of Corneto Tarquinia. A rich Tuscan landlord, Vincenzo Fioroni, undertook excavations at his own expense, both at La Civitá and near the hill Poggio dell' Impiccato. At the latter place more than one hundred tombs were discovered, of which eighty-four were found to be intact. The methods of burial were varied. Some of the graves were cylindrical holes cut into the rock and protected with a stone lid; others were movable stone jars stuck into the ground; others, again, consisted of large square chambers covered with enormous blocks; and finally there were discovered several monolithic sarcophagi. The contents of the graves were likewise varied. Among the numerous weapons the helmets are specially noteworthy, both for their number and for their form and artistic decorations. A great variety of fibulæ (brooches), bracelets, terra-cottas, and vases were also found, as well as the characteristic hut-urns.

We have received from Jacques Reich of this city the remarque proof of his etching of George William Curtis, the latest addition to the series of distinguished Americans, in which the portrait of Schurz was so admirable. The etching of Curtis represents him not as he was when he thrilled the Republican convention in 1860, but in his later years, and his sterner aspect. It has not the charm of other portraits of Mr. Curtis.

Among the exhibitions at the dealers' shops in this city is a collection of Rembrandt's etchings, most of them picked up in Europe during the past summer, at Frederick Keppel & Co.'s, on view till November 30; etchings and lithographs by Whistler, H. Wunderlich & Co.'s, till November 30; paintings by August van Tack, Macbeth's, November 24.

Finance.

THE AFTERMATH OF PANIC.

The spread of the New York panic throughout the rest of the country; the deficit in New York bank reserves (below the 25 per cent. ratio) of $38,838,000 on November 2, and of $51,924,000 on November 9—both figures quite unprecedented; the repetition of the premium on currency witnessed in 1893 and 1873—these successive events of the past two weeks have merely duplicated, on perhaps a larger scale, the similar incidents of preceding panics. Some experiences which followed the New York panic in those other years have not yet been repeated; notably the failure of small banks and mercantile institutions throughout the interior. The reason is that the partial suspension of credit throughout the country has brought all enterprise, solvent and insolvent, to a sort of equality. During the crisis, the country's strongest banking institutions practically pooled their resources with the weakest. Through this joint use of credit, collapse of ill-protected banks and industrial concerns has been prevented, or at all events postponed. It will be when the measures of emergency relief are no longer necessary, and when the regular course of business has been resumed, that all institutions and individuals will be brought to what Western markets call a "show-down." When this real test of solvency comes, many of the weaker or "over-extended" undertakings may be forced to the wall.

In the past week, the event which has in many respects been more sensational than anything of the sort in previous panics has concerned the relations between New York and financial London. When trouble was at its worst in the fourth week of October, all experienced financiers agreed that large recourse to Europe's gold supply would be inevitable. Certain conditions favored such a method of relief on a substantial scale and on a strictly commercial basis. The Bank of England, which, as long ago as the middle of summer, had begun to strengthen its own position through exaction of an unusually high rate of discount, had accumulated an exceptionally large stock of gold and had raised its ratio of reserve to liabilities to the highest figure reported in that month in half a dozen years. On the other hand, our country was fortunate in having a fair surplus of wheat, which the outside world would presumably be compelled to buy at the seller's prices. So far, then, the means of obtaining foreign gold seemed to be well provided; in fact, perhaps $10,000,000 gold was engaged at London, during the early stages of the panic, with exchange on that city holding at rates which abundantly justified such shipments, and with export of agricultural commodities, and sales for future export, reaching unusual magnitude. But the New York market either would not or could not wait. Banks and bankers, accordingly, as was noted in this column last week, offered as high as 3 per cent. premium for imported specie. On this wholly artificial basis of exchange, no less than $40,000,000 gold was started from London on its way to New York city.

The Bank of England, from whose reserves the greater part of this gold had been withdrawn, advanced its rate to 5½ per cent. on October 28, and to 6 on November 4; and on Thursday of last week it broke all precedents since the world-wide panic of 1873 by raising the rate to 7. On the same day the Bank of France fixed 4 per cent., the highest since the Boer War panic of 1899; and on the ensuing day the Bank of Germany went up to 7½, the highest figure in its history. These extraordinary rates, while partly designed to meet conditions in Europe's own markets, especially at Berlin, nevertheless were primarily directed to regulating the New York demand for gold. Exactly what the withdrawals by New York signified to the Bank of England may be judged from the fact that last Thursday's weekly statement of the Bank showed a loss of $30,000,000 gold within a fortnight, and a fall in its ratio of reserve to liability, from the comfortable figure of 49⅜ per cent. on October 17, to 35¼ on November 7. The second of these figures, though below the traditional 40 per cent. minimum, was nevertheless no lower than has been reached occasionally even in recent years. But those instances were due to temporary causes, such as the large December settlements at London; in the present case, nobody could tell how long this extravagant American demand would last. The Bank of England possessed no means of protection except its discount rate.

When the strain is over—always supposing serious trouble does not break out in Europe itself—it may be confidently predicted that these high bank rates will gradually drop, and that the foreign money markets will resume a normal course. Meantime, however, the remarkable movements above described, and the continuance of gold withdrawals from Europe for New York during the present week, raise the question: What has become of all the gold which lately seemed to be flowing into the world's reserves? The world's gold production during 1906 broke all records, and production this present year, so far as America and the Transvaal are concerned, has run beyond even 1906. Moreover, the Treasury estimate of this country's actual money circulation, published a few days ago, showed that during October, the month of panic outbreak, the gold in the United States increased by $6,700,000, and that the total supply of all sorts of currency was enlarged by $14,000,000.

These figures include the holdings of the Treasury. If they are omitted, so as to indicate the amount of currency in actual circulation (on the markets or in bank reserves), the comparison is far more striking. Owing in the main to the large deposits made by the Treasury last month in banks, here and elsewhere, the total supply of money in the United States, outside the Treasury, increased between October 1 and November 1 no less than $70,500,000. In other words, during this very panic period the circulating medium has been increasing with extraordinary rapidity. What has become of it all? And, in particular, how is it possible that when money enough was on hand a month or two ago, there should now be so excited a scramble for the reserves of all the great banks here and abroad?

No doubt actual hoarding by individuals accounts partly for this sudden need. The difficulty has not been complicated, as in 1857, by the sudden removal, from circulation, of notes of banks which had suspended payments. But when due allowance has been made for private hoarding—the amount, perhaps, in the whole United States, may have reached $30,000,000 or $40,000,000—the fundamental cause of the present urgent demand still remains to be pointed out. In times of easy credit, relatively small reserves in cash suffice as a basis for large superstructure of bank liabilities. The country banks, under the national bank law, deposit at New York or other cities three-fifths of their 15 per cent. required cash reserve; trust companies work under an even smaller margin of actual cash in their own vaults. Each institution leans on the credit of some other, without provoking distrust. But once let general doubt about banking credit spread throughout the country, and each fiduciary institution will try to collect at once into its own vaults as large a stock of cash as possible. Reliance on other banks where reserves have been redeposited is not enough. Indeed, the panic of 1893 showed plainly to the West and South that a solvent country

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bank might be forced to close its doors through inability to obtain cash due it from a solvent city institution. The result of a precautionary hoarding of currency by the banks of a hundred cities is that supplies of currency which, a month ago, were ample for the market's needs, are now entirely inadequate.

It may be asked: How shall we find relief? The answer must be sought in the history of former panics. When excitement quiets down; when the sheep and the goats have been separated in the ranks of firms and institutions; when the community as a whole has regained its confidence in such institutions as survive—then the currency hoarded by individuals will return to the bank reserves, and institutions which have been holding unusually large quantities of cash to meet the crisis will gradually relax their grip on the money. It will once more flow to the larger city markets, and from there, if former experience is a guide, will go back to Europe in the form of gold. But time is required for this process of recovery.

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